# HARPER'S WEEKLY.
A JOURNAL OF CIVILIZATION.

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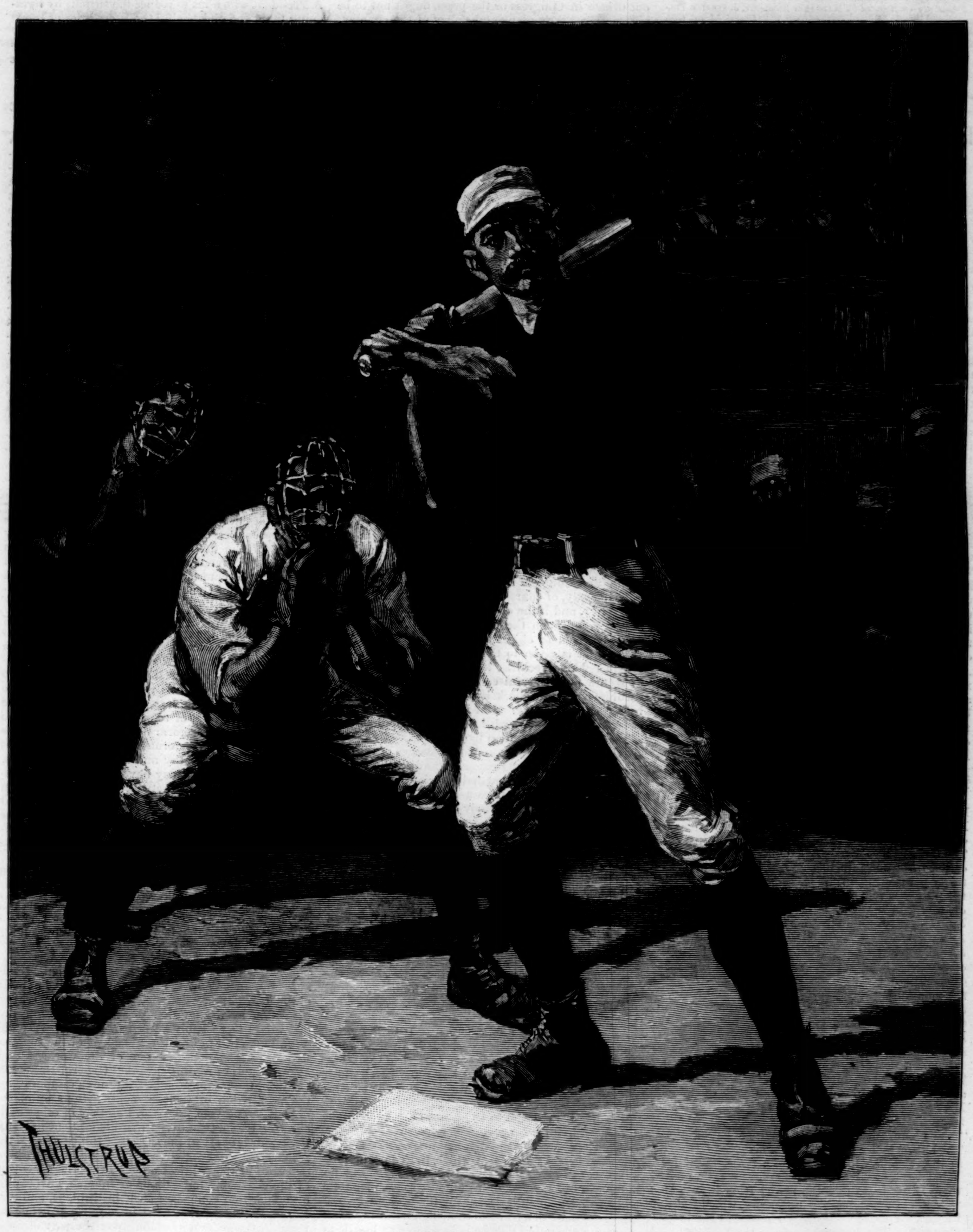


"A BALL OR A STRIKE—WHICH?"—DRAWN BY T. DE THULSTRUP.—[SEE PAGE 550.]

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NEW YORK, JULY 28, 1888.

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## REVISION AND FREE-TRADE.

THE method of reducing the surplus which is recommended by the President is said to be a first step toward free-trade or the abolition of customs duties, because many of the arguments which sustain it are logically fatal to the policy of protection. But however true that may be, it does not affect the fact that the President has not recommended free-trade, that he does not propose or favor free-trade, and that the tariff issue in the campaign is not free-trade. The Republican party sprang from the antislavery sentiment. Its object was the non-extension of slavery into the Territories. Its arguments were based upon the essential wrong and impolicy of slavery, and the logic of its argument led to emancipation. But the Republican party was not an emancipation party. It could not have elected a President upon that issue, and if the slave power had not taken up arms, slavery in the States under Republican administration would have been secure until the public opinion of the country had provided a peaceful method of emancipation. The country would not now elect a free-trade administration, and however much the arguments which urge a reduction of the surplus by repealing the taxes upon necessaries may logically lead to free-trade, no intelligent citizen seriously apprehends that the election of Mr. CLEVELAND would result in closing the custom-houses. There will be no free-trade until the American people prefer to pay the cost of the government by direct rather than by indirect taxation. The arguments for the CLEVELAND policy are valid not because they are free-trade arguments, but because they urge a just and reasonable and effective method of reducing the surplus, and that there is a popular demand for such reduction is shown by the Republican efforts to devise another method than the President's.

It is the settled policy of the country to raise the larger part of the revenue by customs duties. The President truly says the tariff "must be extensively continued as the source of the government's income." The tariff of 1846 was designed to establish what were called free-trade principles. But it levied a rate of thirty per cent. upon the leading articles. It admitted purely revenue articles, like tea and coffee, free of duty, which was a violation of the fundamental canon of a revenue tariff, while, on the other hand, iron and its manufactures, wool and woollen goods, cotton goods, and the articles over which the tariff controversy largely rages, paid a duty of thirty per cent. This was a high degree of protection. In 1857 the maximum protective duty was reduced to twenty-four per cent. Many raw materials were admitted free, and the level of duties was brought to the lowest line reached since 1815. "It is not likely," says TAUSSIG, "we shall see for a great many years to come a nearer approach to the free-trade ideal." The reduction of duties in 1857 was approved, he adds, by "the main body of the manufacturing class." Mr. SHERMAN called the law of that year "the manufacturers' bill." Mr. RICE, of Massachusetts, said that "the manufacturer asks no additional protection." The bill of 1861 was passed to remedy the falling off in the revenue which arose from the crisis of 1857. Whatever may have been the real cause of that crisis, there is no doubt that the period from 1846 to 1860 was one of great material prosperity, which was due in part, for there were many reasons, to the moderate tariff. The supporters of the tariff of 1861 said that their intention was to restore the rates of 1846. The war compelled a large increase of rates, which were made high enough to compensate the domestic producer for the internal taxes which were levied at the same time, and as the latter were extended the tariff rates were increased.

As the war continued, the necessity of raising an enormous revenue resulted in an extraordinary application of the principle of protection, which under other circumstances would probably not have been tolerated. The average rate of duties, which had been 37.2 per cent. under the act of 1862, became 47.06 under that of 1864. The measure, which was one of the most important in our financial history, was passed after five days' consideration only. This extreme haste may have been justified by urgent necessity. But such an act, framed for an extraordinary emergency of war, and adopted practically without debate in Congress or the press, ought not to be regarded as the fundamental policy of the country. The strong popular feeling against excessive duties led to the legislation of 1883. But the changes did not essentially modify the tariff. They were devised by high protectionists, and were unsatisfactory to those who hold that the existing system should be modified. Nearly a quarter of a century after the war, when a vast and threatening surplus is accumulating every year, the proposition to revise the tariff, and to relieve labor of its onerous and unnecessary burdens, is not a proposal of free-trade, but of that moderate and reasonable tariff policy which has been hitherto most agreeable to the country. The Republican party, which now deliberately declares its willingness to make whiskey free rather than to lighten the burdens laid upon necessaries by a war tax, has assumed a new position which transforms it into a party of protection for the sake of protection. The demand for modification which produced the inadequate and unsatisfactory legislation of 1883 is stronger and more wide-spread than ever, and a revision and modification in the direction and manner indicated by the President will not be silenced by the cry of free-trade.

## THE PENSION VETOES.

THE impatience with the President's pension vetoes, and the remark that it is very petty business for him to undertake to save a few thousands of dollars, and that he has a mistaken view of the veto power, meet very little public favor at a moment when the chief question is held to be that of reducing an immense and increasing surplus, and when strenuous opposition is offered to diminishing the taxes of a war tariff. This disposition to neglect what are ridiculed as small economies signally illustrates the demoralizing influence of a surplus. As the *Herald* tersely put it the other day, the government levies a much higher tax than it needs, and the unnecessary tax is justified by saying that Congress will find some way of spending it. One way, of course, is to give a small pension to everybody, and if the objection should be raised that it is a fraud upon the Treasury, to retort that it is petty business to object to such small sums. The veto power is given to the President to prevent ill-considered and reckless legislation. It is intended to secure more careful consideration. It is not an absolute arrest and check, because it may be overcome by a certain majority. But it is a power to be exercised by the Executive with the same scrupulous care as the power of legislation by Congress.

A careful scrutiny of the veto messages of the President shows that he has exercised the discretion given to him in the most diligent and conscientious manner. There has been sometimes a phrase or a comment which might have been wisely omitted. But the reasons for the veto have been generally adequate and conclusive. It is possible that a better method of determining the justice of pension claims might be adopted. Perhaps the decision of a bureau, or of a committee of Congress, or of a commissioner, should be absolutely conclusive. There may be good reasons why the question of pensions should not be referred to the President at all. But so long as it is referred in the form of bills for his approval or disapproval, he is as much bound to give them the same attention, and to be governed by the same sense of public duty and the obligation of his oath, as in treating any other subject which comes lawfully before him. The kind of complaint which is made is childish. Almost every pension veto convicts Congress of careless action in squandering the public money. It is not petty business to prevent such waste. It is a public duty. When twenty bills have been returned to Congress, with a message showing the haste and carelessness with which they have been passed, it might be supposed that the number of such bills would diminish. Certainly it ought not to be assumed that the Executive scrutiny of them should be relaxed.

That the President sometimes makes mistakes in the discharge of a duty in which the constant mistakes of Congress are exposed is probable. But no motive other than a high and just sense of public duty can be fairly assigned for his pension vetoes. The exigencies of a political campaign naturally stimulate the allegation that he is in some way hostile to the Union soldiers, and aims to propitiate a supposed "Confederate brigadier" sentiment. But nothing is more evident than the "Confederate" votes for Union pensions, and the entire absence of any "Confederate" sentiment which seeks gratification by any kind of unpatriotic or revengeful legislation. The attempt to cast discredit upon the President for sympathy with those who were engaged in the war against the Union has failed utterly; and although party spirit may insist that any veto of a pension, however fraudulent the claim may be, is an insult to the Union veterans, it is not a spirit which affects intelligent soldiers. The cry is akin to that which accuses the President of truckling to John Bull, to the injury of the American laborer. What plausible reason can be stated why the President should be opposed to the interest of American laborers, who compose so large a part of his party, in order to serve the interests of England? A President who aims to reduce the surplus by lightening taxes and cheapening the necessaries of life is not a mortal enemy of his fellow-citizens who live by wages. Nor does he become an enemy of Union veterans by doing what he can to prevent the payment of fraudulent pensions.

## GENERAL HARRISON AND CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.

GENERAL HARRISON'S views of civil service reform will be made known, undoubtedly, in his letter of acceptance. The party which has nominated him, however, treats it as what the New York *Tribune* calls a side issue. This is inevitable, because it was evident that the Convention was a BLAINE assembly, and its platform was made with a view to the support of the friends of Mr. BLAINE, or as was truly said, Mr. BLAINE was put into the platform. Unless, therefore, Mr. BLAINE and his lieutenants are civil service reformers, the party, under the control of the BLAINE spirit and ideas, is not a reform party. The platform, indeed, with an amusing gibe at independent Republicans, repeats the reform declaration of 1884; but that was instantly discredited and its significance totally destroyed by the nomination of the candidate. Mr. BLAINE and not the declaration was the pledge of the party to reform. Nor has the party feeling changed. In this year's Convention the allusion to the subject, besides the repetition of the discredited declaration, consisted of sneers at the President's course. No honest man could say that the proceedings of the Convention showed that reform was regarded by the Republican party as a cardinal issue, or an important issue, or that it had the slightest influence in determining the nomination. If Mr. BLAINE had been made the candidate, as a minority of the delegates undoubtedly wished, he would have been represented as the candidate of reform solely because of the declaration, which his nomination would have covered with ridicule. The declaration under such circumstances neither makes the party a reform party nor General HARRISON, as its representative, a reformer.

In the Senate General HARRISON made a strong speech exposing the spoils course of the CLEVELAND administration in Indiana. He denounced it as a hypocritical and canting course. But, as we remember, his objection was not to political removals, but to calling political removals reform. The speech, like that of Senator HALE last winter, was made in the interest of party, not of reform. It was intended to prove that whether reform were desirable or not, the President was not a reformer, and was therefore not entitled to the sympathy and support of reformers. But however justly it may have censured the Democratic President, it did not show that a Republican President would do better. We are not aware that Senator HARRISON'S speech was accepted by the friends of reform as evidence of his practical and efficient interest in reform. Nearly six years ago he said, in a public speech:

> "I want to assure you to-night that I am an advocate of civil service reform. My brief experience at Washington has led me often to utter the wish, with an emphasis I do not often use, that I might be forever relieved of any connection with the distribution of public patronage. I covet for myself the free and unpurchased support of my fellow-citizens, and long to be able to give my time and energy solely to those public affairs that legitimately relate to the honorable trust which you have committed to me."

How far these views influenced his action as Senator we do not know. Yet if he had relieved himself of the distribution of public patronage by governing his action by the familiar principles of reform, the fact would be probably known in Indiana. We observe that Mr. FOULKE, the President of the Indiana Reform Association, and one of the warmest and ablest friends of reform, says that General HARRISON voted for the PENDLETON bill, although disapproving the prohibition of political contributions by office-holders. The vote, however, like that of other Senators and Representatives, was not evidence of any particular interest in the subject. But General HARRISON aided Mr. FOULKE in his vigorous and effective exposure of the political abuses in the management of the charitable institutions of Indiana, advocating a non-partisan control of such institutions, and Mr. FOULKE says that reformers have felt a growing interest in the general question upon the part of General HARRISON.

We hope that this feeling is well-founded. But

there is no reason in such a feeling, nor in anything yet known to us, for supposing that if elected to the Presidency, General HARRISON would be able to resist an adverse pressure which General GRANT and Mr. CLEVELAND could not withstand. That the pressure of Republican politicians would be as virulent and constant as that of Democratic politicians has been, is unquestionable. If, indeed, he had shown himself to be a civil service reformer as Mr. MCKINLEY and Judge KELLEY have shown themselves to be earnest, positive, uncompromising protectionists, we can see that those who look solely at the question of reform would earnestly support General HARRISON as its representative. But without any such evidence, and in the actual situation, when, as it seems to us, there is no greater probability of his adhesion to actual reform than there would have been in the case of Mr. SHERMAN, and when he stands as the champion of an unreasonable and monstrous scheme of unnecessary taxation, the civil service reformer who is also a tariff reformer, and who regards the Republican platform as preposterous, will naturally feel that in supporting General HARRISON he abandons his convictions upon one cardinal point without reasonable expectation of promoting them upon another. In the event of his election, however, if it should appear that General HARRISON is in good faith and in actual practice a reformer in the sense in which Mr. FOULKE understands the word, deeply as we should deplore the approval by the country of the policy set forth in the Republican platform, no journal would more gladly and unhesitatingly acknowledge the fidelity of the new President to reform than HARPER'S WEEKLY.

## THE BOULANGER DUEL.

IF General SHERIDAN should grossly insult Secretary BAYARD in a public speech, and the two gentlemen should then arm themselves with swords and attempt to kill each other, they would do what M. FLOQUET and General BOULANGER have just done in Paris. Paris, in which a certain savage ferocity is thinly veneered with art and luxury, is fond of calling itself the capital of civilization. But the quality of its civility is shown by such an incident as the late duel. New-Zealanders and Hottentots and Modocs and Sioux Indians might be addicted to such practices, but that civilized statesmen and soldiers should hack and hew at each other after exchanging insults is, in this age, a remarkable fact. At the beginning of the century, when AARON BURR shot ALEXANDER HAMILTON in a duel, the criminal folly of the practice was brought home to the American mind with so dreadful a shock that although CLAY and RANDOLPH, and later CILLEY and GRAVES, "repaired to the field of honor," yet the practice was stigmatized too deeply, and it has disappeared before the light of commonsense.

The duel is a relic of barbarism, and it lingers still in France because it is an imperfectly civilized country. It is almost impossible to conceive Mr. GLADSTONE and Lord SALISBURY, or Mr. MORLEY and General WOLSELEY, fighting a duel. The public indignation with such an offence would be overwhelming. All the club sophistries about the practice as a system of wild justice, which disciplined manners and restrained excess, are long since laughed away. It was the delight of bullies and sharpers, and every man of intelligence who gave it countenance wounded civilized society. BOULANGER is in himself an unimportant personage. He has said nothing and done nothing which commends him to especial honor or regard. But he has been accepted as a representative of the war sentiment, until he apparently supposed that he could command a revision of the Constitution and become a Dictator. M. FLOQUET reproached him with lingering in the antechamber of princes and courting foreign favor. Both claimed to serve the republic. But the cries addressed to BOULANGER as he left the Chamber implied that the sentiment of the street was against him. He refused to attend the ceremony of unveiling the statue of GAMBETTA, upon the ground that the opportunists who erected it abandon GAMBETTA'S principles.

It seems to be the day of small men in France. There is no commanding figure among her statesmen, and BOULANGER, who is the most prominent Frenchman, does not "fill the eye." It is not easy to trace coherently the course of French politics. The normal condition of an administration and an opposition, of parties seeking progress and promoting policies within the government, is constantly threatened by movements against the government itself. A French political crisis is substantially a situation not of change of administration, but of the form of government. In this sense the revolution is permanent, and an administration is in the nature of a more or less victorious camp. Undoubtedly the general condition has improved within a generation. The idea that there may be a change of administration without an overthrow of the government is becoming more familiar. But political France has come to be regarded as very like Mexico a few years ago. Some BOULANGER appears, and the country flutters. The prompt challenge of FLOQUET addressed to BOULANGER, the duel, and the wound of BOULANGER, may strike the barbaric fancy of the Paris mob, and give a certain heroic glamour to the CARNOT administration as the defender of the republic; but it is all spectacular politics, and it is hard not to feel that the French republic is what the American republic was so long called—an experiment.

## THE MULOCK CRAIK MEMORIAL.

THE American subscribers to the memorial of Mrs. MULOCK CRAIK, the author of *John Halifax, Gentleman*, will be glad to hear of the promise of an admirable work. The warmth of the response, both in America and England, to the suggestion of such a memorial has been very gratifying, and it shows how strong a hold the delightful writer and excellent woman had taken of the heart of her countrymen and their kin beyond the sea. The execution of the monument has been intrusted to HENRY HUGH ARMSTEAD, R.A., a selection which is highly approved by artists. Sir FREDERIC LEIGHTON speaks of it as a most satisfactory arrangement.

Mr. ARMSTEAD is a sculptor of distinction who has made many familiar works. His versatility of talent recalls BENVENUTO CELLINI, for he is commended for his skill as a designer, modeller, and chaser for silver, gold, or jewelry, and as a draughtsman on wood. Among his works in silver are the TENNYSON vase, the PACKINGTON shield, the Doncaster race plate, the St. George vase; and his last important work in this kind, the OUTRAM shield, received the medal. In marble, bronze, stone, and wood he has executed the figures upon the Albert Memorial, Hyde Park, representing musicians and painters of the Italian, German, French, and English schools, with some of the greater poets. The great bronze figures on the Albert Memorial of Chemistry, Astronomy, Medicine, and Rhetoric are also by ARMSTEAD.

The list of his works includes also statues of conspicuous contemporary Englishmen, and certifies the high repute in which he is held. Mr. ARMSTEAD has selected a site at Tewkesbury, which has been granted by Canon ROBESON, and he has completed a clay sketch which forecasts a beautiful and fitting memorial. It is surmounted by a figure of Charity; the medallion is beneath, and lower is a tablet for inscriptions; on one side of it is a figure of Truth, and on the other of Purity. There will be no delay in the erection of the monument, which will happily associate with a place which she loved, and which she has invested with enduring interest, the name and memory of a noble English woman.

## PUBLIC SPIRIT AND ELECTION FRAUDS.

THE report of the work of the Citizens' Committee of One Hundred in Indianapolis shows what intelligent, vigorous, persistent, and non-partisan action can accomplish in correcting frauds at the polls. The question is of the utmost importance, and the example of the Indianapolis Committee is very instructive and encouraging. The canvass of the votes in that city after the Congressional and State election of November, 1886, revealed foul play with the tally-sheets and poll-books in several precincts. Figures and writing had been erased with a sharp instrument and with acids, and additional tallies, writing, and figures had been forged.

Upon the discovery of the facts a committee of citizens of all parties was organized. Its Executive Committee at once employed counsel, and obtained evidence which was laid before the Grand Jury, which in May, 1887, indicted eleven persons for conspiring feloniously to induce certain inspectors of election to neglect their duty of safe custody of documents, by surrendering them to certain persons to be altered and mutilated. Three jury trials were held before Judge W. A. WOODS, in the District Court of the United States, resulting in the conviction and sentence to the penitentiary of two of the accused, an acquittal of four, and a disagreement as to the remainder. Upon an appeal of the question of the authority of the Court to try the offences alleged, the Supreme Court of the United States affirmed the judgment of the lower court.

The decision is of very great and general importance in such trials. The Court holds that in elections where a member of Congress is voted for:

"*First.* That a tally-sheet is an entirety, and not a separate document in respect to each candidate voted for. That when it is forged or mutilated in any one place, its value is entirely destroyed. That it is not one document so far as it relates to candidates for State and county offices, and a different document so far as it relates to the election of a member of Congress.

"*Second.* That any inspector or judge of election to whose keeping the tally-sheets and poll-books are committed is the custodian of those papers not simply for the citizens of his precinct or ward, nor for the citizens of his county or State, but is the custodian of said tally-sheets and papers for every citizen of the United States, and is a United States officer.

"*Third.* That the sections of the statutes of Indiana relating to the manner and method of conducting elections, and prescribing the duties of the officers thereof, are a part of the United States law, the same as if these sections were incorporated into and made a part of the act of Congress.

"*Fourth.* That persons who conspire, confederate, and agree together to induce, aid, counsel, and advise any inspector or judge of election, where a member of Congress is voted for, to omit to perform any duty required and imposed on him by law, are guilty of conspiracy against the United States, and punishable under the laws of the United States.

"*Fifth.* That even though the intent and purpose was only to affect the returns of the votes of certain State and local offices, and not in any manner to affect the returns of the votes of a member of Congress, any person who does interfere and falsify the election returns as to any of the persons voted for is punishable under the laws of the United States."

This decision defines the important responsibility of officers of elections, and the Supreme Court says, solemnly:

"We cannot better close this opinion than by a further extract from that of the court in *ex parte* YARBROUGH, 110, U. S. Rep., p. 666: 'In a republican government like ours, where political power is reposed in representatives of the entire body of the people, chosen at short intervals by popular elections, the temptation to control these elections by violence and by corruption is a constant source of danger. Such has been the history of all republics, and though ours has been comparatively free from both these evils in the past, no lover of his country can shut his eyes to the fear of future danger from both sources.'"

Mr. HOBBS, the Secretary of the Executive Committee, says:

"I fully believe that if the independent and serious men in any community will organize, employ and pay counsel, and persist in the prosecution of those guilty of buying and selling votes or forging tally-sheets, they will succeed in reducing to a minimum this fraudulent work, as we believe we are doing here. I never yet have seen any good come of any movement intended to uncover and expose election frauds that was not undertaken by a non-political, systematic organization, the *only* object of which was to bring to punishment the guilty parties, and I have yet to see the first organization of this kind that has failed in its purpose."

## A FOOLISH FALSEHOOD.

A RECENT letter from Washington to the New York *Press* attempts to discredit the President by representing him as retaining an incompetent clerk in the public service because he is a nephew of the editor of HARPER'S WEEKLY. There is no nephew or other relation of the editor of HARPER'S WEEKLY who, to his knowledge, is in the public service, and the whole story, so far as improper action upon the part of the President is concerned, is doubtless as unfounded as the assertion of the relationship of the clerk.

## THE PUBLIC SCHOOL EXCITEMENT IN BOSTON.

THE great meetings in Boston in defence of the freedom of the public school, the ardent tone of the speeches, and the obvious public excitement, show how strong is the hold of the system upon the American mind. SWINTON'S history has been displaced from the schools by the Committee, in which the influence of the Church of Rome predominates, because of his treatment of the subject of indulgences. The complaint was made by a priest of that Church, and he objected also to the view given by one of the oldest and most respected teachers in the schools, who was thereupon transferred. The text-book is one of several condemned by the ecclesiastical authorities, and the public excitement is due to the fact that the Church, which has been always hostile to the public schools, is now believed to be attempting to regulate them at its pleasure.

It is clear that if text-books are to be adapted to the religious views of school committees, the non-sectarian character of the schools will disappear. The fiery speeches at the Boston meetings declared that the question was not of the accuracy or inaccuracy of SWINTON'S history, nor of the character of the comments made by the teacher, but whether the Jesuits, who are essentially hostile to American institutions, and who hold that the education of youth should be under the absolute control of the Roman Church, shall decide what books shall be used and what teachers employed in the public schools. The Rev. Dr. MINER said that it was a question of Romanism against Protestantism, and that the schools, which are the nurseries of the American republic, must not be suffered to fall into the hands of those who are inimical to American principles.

The whole incident is interesting and significant as showing the profound attachment to the public-school system. The fundamental idea of the system is its freedom from religious or sectarian control, and this is the point upon which the Roman Church has always opposed the system. The Roman scheme is that of its own control of all the schools, and, until that is practicable, a State subsidy to every sect for the support of its own schools. This, of course, is absolutely incompatible with the American principle, and the Boston incident will deepen the jealousy with which hostility to that principle is popularly regarded.

## PERSONAL.

GENERAL HARRISON finds, among the other cares that the Presidential nomination brings, difficulty in arranging the long list of pending law cases wherein he has been retained. In court the other day he suggested the continuance of one case till November 21st, saying, facetiously, to the judge, "I shall know by that time, your honor, whether I am to be permitted to continue my practice before you."

—Ex-Governor BERRY, of New Hampshire, ninety-three years old, still enjoys a game of croquet, and, rain or shine, takes a long walk every morning before breakfast.

—One of our most devoted students of horticulture is the wife of Senator SHERMAN, who not only knows all the attractions of the garden, but understands as well how to make them thrive.

—The United States Senate has voted to honor JOHN C. FREMONT with a place upon the rolls of the retired list as Major-General of the army.

—Wall Street has just lost one of her most daring speculative leaders, CHARLES A. JOHNES, who in the last few years has made over $2,000,000 in the stock-market, breaking down his health utterly in the strain and excitement involved.

—The widow of President GARFIELD has given $10,000 to the Garfield University of Wichita, Kansas.

—General BENJAMIN F. BUTLER is giving up all business cares this summer for the sake of the joys that his yacht provides.

—How intensely democratic this land is is proved perhaps by the fact that the English oak planted some years ago in the Central Park, New York, by the Prince of Wales declines to flourish, and is dying.

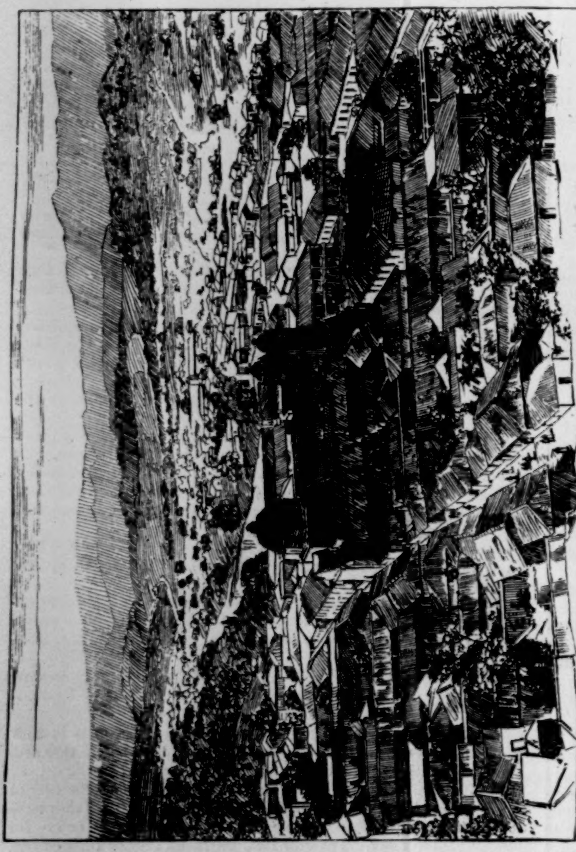
—TENNYSON is to write a memorial poem in honor of the two lately deceased German Emperors, the task being set by Queen VICTORIA.

—The magnificent collection of gifts received by Pope LEO on the occasion of his last year's Jubilee (barring money) is to be used as the nucleus for a museum to be established in the Pontiff's honor.

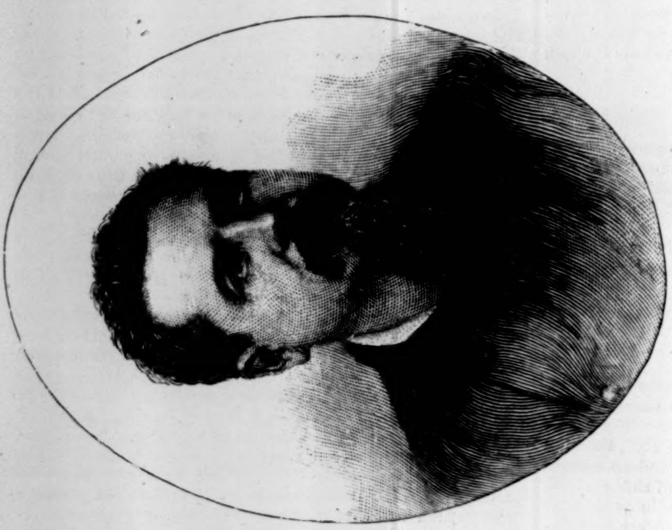
—Germany's new Emperor is inclined to be hostile toward Freemasonry, an order in high favor with his father and grandfather.

—Not less than half a score attractive summer resorts in New England are expectant of the coming of Mrs. CLEVELAND this season—expectations that she has done nothing to warrant.

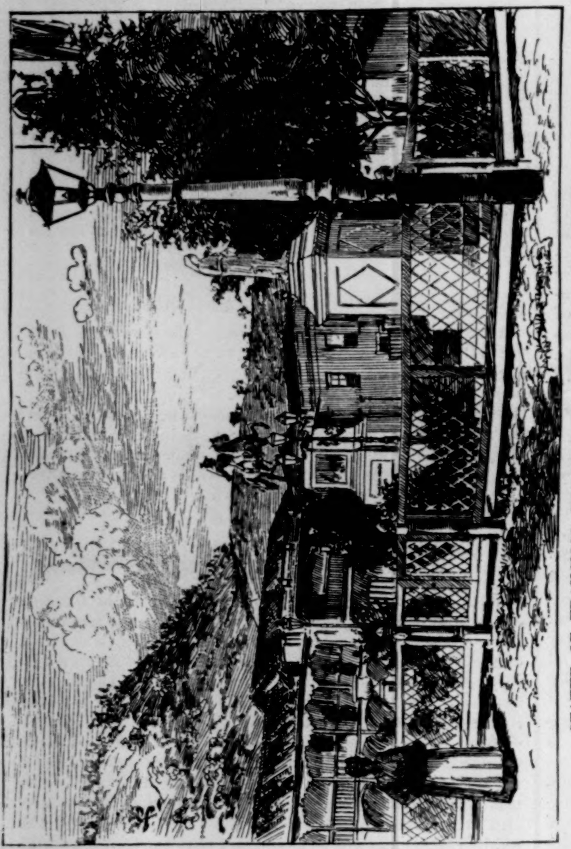
—The farmers of one county in Illinois are so much in fear of a threatened invasion of their fields by chinch-bugs that they have united in an agreement not to plant any wheat, barley, or rye for the next three years. The granger's life is not always a happy one.



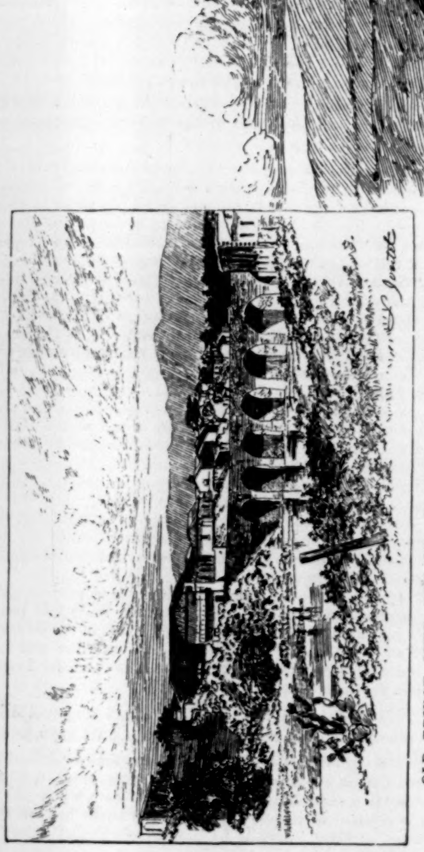
BIRDS-EYE VIEW OF TEGUCIGALPA, THE CAPITAL OF THE REPUBLIC.



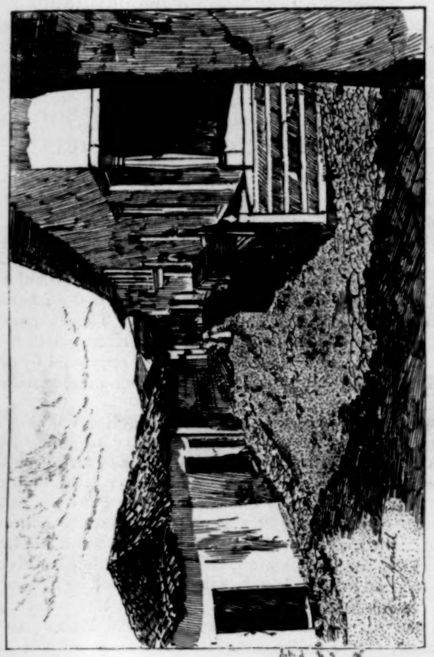
GENERAL LUIS BOGRAN, PRESIDENT OF HONDURAS.



STATUE OF FRANCISCO MORAZAN, IN THE PLAZA OF TEGUCIGALPA



OLD BRIDGE OVER THE RIO GRANDE AT TEGUCIGALPA.



STREET IN YUSCARAN.

PUEBLO AND "MINERAL" OF YUSCARAN.

VIEWS OF TOWN AND COUNTRY IN HONDURAS.—From Photographs.—[See Page 554.]

"HE TURNED SLIGHTLY AWAY, AND SAID NOTHING."

# COLONEL QUARITCH, V.C.*

BY H. RIDER HAGGARD,

AUTHOR OF "SHE," "KING SOLOMON'S MINES," "ALLAN QUATERMAIN," ETC.

## CHAPTER VII.

### EDWARD COSSEY, ESQUIRE.

AFTER George had drunk his glass of wine, and given his opinion as to the best way to deal with the dangerous pinnacle on the Boisingham Church, he took the note, untied the fat pony, and ambled off back to Honham, leaving the lawyer alone. As soon as he was gone, Mr. Quest threw himself back in his chair—an old oak one, by-the-way, for he had a very pretty taste in antiquities and a positive mania for collecting them—and plunged into a brown-study.

Presently he leant forward, unlocked the top drawer of his writing-table, and extracted from it a letter addressed to himself, which he had received that very morning. It was from the principals of the great banking firm of Cossey & Son, and dated from their head office in Mincing Lane. It ran as follows:

[*Private and confidential.*]

"DEAR SIR,—We have considered your report as to the extensive mortgages which we hold upon the Honham Castle estates, and have given due weight to your arguments as to the advisability of allowing Mr. De la Molle time to give things a chance of righting. But we must tell you that we can see no prospect of any such solution of the matter, at any rate for some years to come. All the information that we are able to gather points to a further decrease in the value of land rather than to a recovery. The interest on the mortgages in question is moreover a year in arrear, probably owing to the non-receipt of rents by Mr. De la Molle. Under these circumstances, much as it grieves us to take action against Mr. De la Molle, with whose family we have had dealings for five generations, we can see no alternative to foreclosure, and hereby instruct you to take the necessary preliminary steps to bring it about in the usual manner. We are, presuming that Mr. De la Molle is not in a position to pay off the mortgages, quite aware of the risks of a forced sale, and shall not be astonished if, in the present unprecedented condition of the land market, such a sale should result in a loss, although the sum recoverable does not amount to half the valuation of the estates, which was undertaken at our instance about twelve years ago, on the occasion of the first advance. The only alternative, however, would be for us to enter into possession of the property or to buy it in. But this would be a course totally inconsistent with the usual practice of the bank, and what is more, our confidence in the stability of landed property is so utterly shattered by our recent experiences that we cannot burden ourselves by such a course, preferring to run the risk of an immediate loss, which, however, we hope that the historical character of the property and its great natural advantages as a residential estate will avert, or at the least minimize.

"Be so good as to advise us by an early post of the steps you take in pursuance of these instructions.

"We are, dear sir, your obedient servants,

"COSSEY & SON.

"W. QUEST, ESQ.

"P. S.—We have thought it better to address you direct in this matter, but of course you will communicate the contents of this letter to Mr. Edward Cossey, and subject to our instructions, which are final, act in consultation with him."

"Well," said Mr. Quest to himself, as he folded up the sheet of paper, "that is about as straight as it can be put. And this is the time that the old gentleman chooses to ask for another four thousand. He may ask, but the answer will be more than he bargains for."

He rose from the chair and began to walk up and down the room in evident perplexity. "If only," he said, "I had twenty-five thousand, I would take up the mortgages myself and foreclose at my leisure. It would be a good investment at that figure, even as things are; and besides, I should like to have that place. Twenty-five thousand, only twenty-five thousand, and now when I want it I have not got it. And I should have had it if it had not been for that tiger, that devil, Edith. She has had more than that out of me in the last ten years, and still she is threatening, and crying for more, more, more. Tiger; yes, that is the name for her, her own name too. She would coin one's vitals into money if she could. All Belle's fortune she has had, or nearly all, and most of my savings, and now she wants another five hundred, and she will have it, too.

"Here we are," and he drew a letter from his pocket written in a bold but somewhat uneducated woman's hand.

"Dear Bill," it ran—"I've been unlucky again, and dropped a pot. Shall want £500 by the 1st October. No shuffling, mind; money down; but I think that you know me too well to play any more larks. When can you tear yourself from the lovely Mrs. Q., and come and give your E. a look? Bring some tin when you come, and we will have times.—Thine, THE TIGER."

"The Tiger—yes, the Tiger," he gasped, his face working with passion and his gray eyes glinting as he tore the epistle to fragments and threw them down and stamped on them. "Well, be careful that I don't one day cut your claws and paint your stripes. By Heaven! if ever a man felt like murder, I do now. Five hundred more, and I haven't five thousand clear in the world. Truly we pay for the follies of our youth! It makes me mad to think of those fools Cossey & Son forcing that place into the market just now. There's a fortune in it at the price. In another year or two I might have recovered myself, that devil of a woman might be dead—and I have several irons in the fire, some of which would be sure to turn up trumps. Surely there must be a way out of it somehow. There's a way out of everything if only one thinks enough, but the thing is to find it," and he stopped in his walk opposite to the window that looked upon the street, and put his hand to his head.

As he did so he caught sight of the figure of a tall gentleman strolling idly toward the office door. For a moment he stared at him blankly, as a man does when he is trying to catch the vague clew to a new idea. Then, as the figure passed out of his view, he brought his fist down heavily upon the sill.

"Edward Cossey, by George!" he said, aloud. "There's the way out of it, if only I can work him; and unless I have made a strange mistake, I think I know the way."

A couple of minutes afterward a tall, shapely young man, of about twenty four or five years of age, came strolling into the office where Mr. Quest was sitting, to all appearance hard at work at his correspondence. He was dark in complexion and decidedly distinguished-looking in feature, with large dark eyes, dark mustaches, and a pale, somewhat Spanish-looking, skin. Young as the face was, it had, if observed closely, a somewhat worn and worried air, such as one would scarcely expect to see upon the countenance of a gentleman born to such brilliant fortunes, and so well fitted by nature to do them justice, as was Mr. Edward Cossey. For it is not every young man with dark eyes and a good figure who is destined to be the future head of one of the most wealthy private banks in England, and to inherit in due course a sum of money in hard cash variously estimated at from half a million to a million sterling. Such, however, was the prospect in life that opened out before Mr. Edward Cossey, who was now supposed by his old and eminently business-like father to be in process of acquiring a sound knowledge of the provincial affairs of their house by attending to the working of their country branches in the Eastern counties.

"How do you do, Quest?" said Edward Cossey, nodding somewhat coldly to the lawyer and sitting down. "Any business?"

"Well, yes, Mr. Cossey," answered the lawyer, rising respectfully, "there is some business, some very serious business."

"Indeed," said Edward, indifferently; "what is it?"

"Well, it is this: the house has ordered a foreclosure on the Honham Castle estates—at least it comes to that—"

At the sound of this intelligence Edward Cossey's whole demeanor underwent the most startling transformation—his languor vanished, his eye brightened, and his form became instinct with active life and beauty.

"What the deuce," he said, and then paused. "I won't have it," he went on, jumping up—"I won't have it. I am not particularly fond of old De la Molle, perhaps because he is not particularly fond of me," he added, rather drolly, "but it would be an infernal shame to break up that family and sell the house under them. Why, they would be ruined. And then there's Ida—Miss De la Molle, I mean—what would become of her? And the old place too. After being in the family for all these centuries, I suppose it would be sold to some confounded counter-skipper or some retired thief of a lawyer. It must be prevented at any price—do you hear, Quest?"

The lawyer winced a little at his chief's contemptuous allusion, and then remarked, with a smile, "I had no idea that you were so sentimental, Mr. Cossey, or that you took such a lively interest in Miss De la Molle," and he glanced up to observe the effect of his shot.

Edward Cossey colored. "I did not mean that I took any particular interest in Miss De la Molle," he said. "I was referring to the family."

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"Oh, quite so, though I am sure I don't know why you shouldn't. Miss De la Molle is one of the most charming women that I ever met, I think the most charming, if I except my own wife Belle," and he again looked up suddenly at Edward Cossey, who, for his part, colored for the second time. "It seems to me," went on the lawyer, "that a man in your position has a most splendid opportunity of playing knight-errant to the lovely damsel in distress. Here is the lady with her aged father about to be sold up and turned out of the estates which have belonged to her family for generations—why don't you do the generous and graceful thing, like the hero in a novel, and take up the mortgages?"

Edward Cossey did not reject this suggestion with the contempt that might have been expected; on the contrary, he appeared to be turning the matter over in his mind, for he drummed a little tune with his knuckles and stared out of the window.

"What is the sum?" he said, presently.

"Five-and-twenty thousand, and he wants four more—say thirty thousand."

"And where am I going to find thirty thousand pounds to take up a bundle of mortgages which will probably never pay a farthing of interest? Why, I have not got three thousand I can come at. Besides," he added, recollecting himself, "why should I interfere in it?"

"I do not think," answered Mr. Quest, ignoring the latter part of the question, "that with your prospects you would find it difficult to get thirty thousand pounds or twice thirty thousand pounds. I know several who would consider it an honor to lend the money to a Cossey, if only for the sake of the introduction—that is, of course, provided the security was of a legal nature."

"Let me see the letter," said Edward.

Mr. Quest handed him the document conveying the commands of Cossey & Son, and he read it through twice.

"The old man means business," he said as he returned it. "That letter was written by him, and when he has once made up his mind, it is useless to try and stir him. Did you say that you were going to see the Squire to-day?"

"No, I did not say so, but as a matter of fact I am. His man George—a shrewd fellow, by-the-way, for one of these bumpkins—came with a letter asking me to go up to the Castle, so I shall get round there to lunch. It is about this fresh loan that the old gentleman wishes to negotiate. Of course I shall be obliged to tell him that instead of giving a fresh loan we shall have to serve a notice on him."

"Don't do that just yet," said Edward, with decision. "Write to the house and say that their instructions shall be attended to. There is no hurry about the notice, though I don't see how I am to help in the matter. Indeed, there is no call upon me."

"Very well, Mr. Cossey. And now, by-the-way, are you going to the Castle this afternoon?"

"Yes, I believe so; why?"

"Well, I want to get up there to luncheon, and I am in a fix. Belle will want the trap to go there this afternoon. Can you lend me your dog-cart to drive up, and then perhaps you would not mind if she gave you a lift this afternoon."

"Very well," answered Edward, "that is, if it suits Mrs. Quest. Perhaps she may object to carting me about the country."

"I have not observed any such reluctance on her part," said the lawyer, dryly; "but we can easily settle the question. I must go home to get some plans before I attend the vestry meeting about that pinnacle. Will you step across with me and we can ask her?"

"Oh yes," he answered. "I have nothing particular to do."

And accordingly, as soon as Mr. Quest had made some small arrangements, and given particular directions to his clerks as to his whereabouts for the day, they set off together for the lawyer's private house.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### MR. QUEST'S WIFE.

Mr. Quest lived in one of those ugly but comfortably built old red brick houses which abound in almost every country town, and which give us the clearest possible idea of the want of taste and love of material comfort that characterized the gross age in which they were built. This house looked out on to the market-place, and had a charming old walled garden at the back, famous for it nectarines, which, together with the lawn-tennis court, was, as Mrs. Quest would say, almost enough to console her for living in a town. The front door, however, was only separated by a little flight of steps from the pavement upon which the house abutted.

Entering into a large, cool-looking hall, Mr. Quest paused and asked a servant who was passing where her mistress was.

"In the drawing-room, sir," said the girl; and, followed by Edward Cossey, he made his way down a long pannelled passage till he reached a door on the left, which he opened quickly and passed through into a charming, modern-looking room, handsomely and even luxuriantly furnished, and lighted by French windows opening on to the walled garden.

A little lady dressed in some black material was standing at one of these windows, her arms crossed behind her back, and absently gazing out of it. At the sound of the opening door she turned swiftly, her whole delicate and lovely face lighting up like a flower in a ray of sunshine, the lips slightly parted, and a deep and happy light shining in her violet eyes. Then, all in an instant, it was instructive to observe *how*, instantaneously, her glance fell upon her husband (for the lady was Mrs. Quest) and her entire expression changed to one of cold aversion, the light fading out of her face as it does from a November sky, and leaving it cold and hard.

Mr. Quest, who was a man who saw everything, saw this also, and smiled bitterly.

"Don't be alarmed, Belle," he said, in a low voice; "I have brought Mr. Cossey with me."

She flushed up to the eyes, a great wave of color, and her breast heaved; but before she could answer, Edward Cossey, who had stopped behind to wipe some mud off his shoes, entered the room, and politely offered his hand to Mrs. Quest, who took it coldly enough.

"You are an early visitor, Mr. Cossey," she said.

"Yes," said her husband; "but the fault is mine. I have brought Mr. Cossey over to ask you if you can give him a lift up to the Castle this afternoon. I have to go up there to lunch, and have borrowed his dog-cart."

"Oh yes, with pleasure; but why can't the dog-cart come back for Mr. Cossey?"

"Well, you see," put in Edward, "there is a little difficulty; my groom is sick, but there is really no reason why you should be bothered. I have no doubt that a man can be found to bring it back."

"Oh no," she said, with a shrug; "it will be all right; only you had better lunch here, that's all, because I want to start early, and go to an old woman's at the other end of Honham about some fuchsia cuttings."

"I shall be very happy," said he.

"Very well, then, that is settled," said Mr. Quest; "and now I must get my plans and be off to that vestry meeting. I'm late as it is. With your permission, Mr. Cossey, I will order the dog-cart as I pass your rooms."

"Certainly," said Edward, and in another moment the lawyer was gone.

Mrs. Quest watched the door close, and then sat down in a low arm-chair, and resting her head upon the back, looked up with a steady, inquiring gaze, full into Edward Cossey's face.

And he too looked at her, and thought what a beautiful woman she was, in her own way. She was very small, rounded in her figure almost to stoutness, and possessed the tiniest and most beautiful hands and feet. But her greatest charm lay in the face, which was almost infantile in its shape, and delicate as a moss-rose. She was exquisitely fair in coloring—indeed, the darkest things about her were her violet eyes, which in some lights looked almost black in contrast with her white forehead and waving auburn hair.

Presently she spoke.

"Has my husband gone?" she said.

"I suppose so. Why do you ask?"

"Because from what I know of his habits I should think it very likely that he is listening behind the door," and she laughed faintly.

"You seem to have a good opinion of him."

"I have exactly the opinion of him that he deserves," she said, bitterly; "and my opinion of him is that he is one of the wickedest men in England."

"If he is behind the door he will enjoy that," said Edward Cossey. "Well, if he is all this, why did you marry him?"

"Why did I marry him?" she answered, with passion; "because I was forced into it, bullied into it, starved into it. What would you do if you were a defenseless, motherless girl of eighteen, with a drunken father who beat you—yes, beat you with a stick—apologized in the most gentleman-like way next morning, and then went and got drunk again? And what would you do if that father were in the hands of a man like my husband, body and soul in his hands, and if between them pressure was brought to bear, and brought to bear, until at last— There, what is the good of going on with it—you can guess the rest."

"Well, and what did he marry you for?—your pretty face?"

"I don't know; he said so; it may have had something to do with it. I think it was my ten thousand pounds—for once I had a whole ten thousand pounds of my own; my poor mother left it me, and tied it up so that my father could not touch it. Well, of course when I married, my husband would not have any settlements, and so he took it, every farthing."

"And what did he do with it?"

"Spent it upon some other woman in London—most of it. I found him out; he gave her thousands of pounds at once."

"Well, I should not have thought that of him," said he, with a laugh.

She paused a moment, and covered her face with her hands, and then went on: "If you only knew, Edward, if you had the faintest idea what my life was till a year and a half ago, when I first saw you, you would pity me, and understand why I am bad and passionate and jealous, and everything that I ought not to be. I never had any happiness as a girl—how could I in such a home as ours?—and then almost before I was a woman I was handed over to that man. Oh, how I hated him, and what I endured!"

"Yes, it can't have been very pleasant."

"Pleasant—but there, we have done with each other now—we don't even speak much except in public, that's my price for holding my tongue about the lady in London and one or two other little things—so what is the use of talking of it? It was a horrible nightmare, but it has gone. And then," she went on, fixing her beautiful eyes upon his face, "then I saw you, Edward, and for the first time in my life I learnt what love was, and I think that no woman ever loved like that before. Other women have had something to care for in their lives; I never had anything till I saw you. It may be wicked, but it's true."

He turned slightly away, and said nothing.

"And yet, dear," she went on, in a low voice, "I think it has been one of the hardest things of all—my love for you. For, Edward," and she rose and took his hand and looked into his face with her soft eyes full of tears, "I should have liked to be a blessing to you and not a curse, and—and—a cause of sin. Oh, Edward, I should have made you such a good wife, no man could have had a better; and I would have helped you too, for I am not such a fool as I seem, and now I shall do nothing but bring trouble upon you; I know I shall. And it was my fault too, at least most of it; don't ever think that I deceive myself, for I don't; I led you on, I know I did, I meant to—there! Think me as shameless as you like, I meant to from the first. And no good can come of it, I know that, although I would not have it undone. No good can ever come of what is wrong. I may be very wicked, but I know that," and she began to cry outright.

This was too much for Edward Cossey, who, as any man must, had been much touched by this unexpected outburst. "Look here, Belle," he blurted out on the impulse of the moment, "I am sick and tired of all this sort of thing. For more than a year my life has been nothing but a living lie, and I can't stand it, and that's a fact. I tell you what it is: I think we had better just take the train to Paris and go off at once, or else give it all up. It is impossible to go on living in this continual atmosphere of falsehood."

She stopped crying. "Do you really care for me enough for that, Edward?" she said.

"Yes, yes," he said, somewhat impatiently; "you can see I do, or I should not make the offer. Say the word and I'll do it."

She thought for a moment, and then looked up again. "No," she said—"no, Edward."

"Why?" he asked; "are you afraid?"

"Afraid," she answered, with a gesture of contempt; "what have I to be afraid of? Do you suppose that such a woman as I am has any care for consequences? We have got beyond that—that is, for ourselves. But we can still feel a little for others. It would ruin you to do such a thing, socially and in every other way. You know that you have often said that your father would cut you out of his will if you compromised yourself and him like that."

"Oh yes, he would do that. I am sure of it. He would never forgive the scandal; he has a hatred of that sort of thing. But I could get a few thousands ready money, and change our names, and go off to some colony or something."

"It is very good of you to say so," she said, humbly. "I don't deserve it, and I will not take advantage of you. You will be sorry that you made the offer by to-morrow. Ah, yes, I know it is only because I cried. No, we must go on as we are till the end comes, and then you can discard me; for all the blame will follow me, and I shall deserve it too, for I am older than you, you know, and a woman, and my husband will make some money out of you, and then it will all be forgotten, and I shall have had my day and go my own way to oblivion, like thousands of other unfortunate women before me, and it will all be the same a hundred years hence, don't you see. But, Edward, remember one thing. Don't play me any tricks, for I am not of the sort to bear it. Have patience and wait for the end, for these things never last very long, and I shall never be a burden on you. Don't desert me or make me jealous, for I cannot bear it, I cannot indeed, and I do not know what I might do—make a scandal or kill myself or you, I'm sure I can't say what. You nearly sent me wild the other day when you were carrying on with Miss De la Molle—ah, yes, I saw it all—I have suspected you for a long time, and sometimes I think that you are really in love with her. And now, sir, I tell you what it is, we have had enough of this melancholy talk to last me for a month. What did you come here for at all this morning, just when I wanted to get you out of my head for an hour or two and think about my garden? I suppose it was all a trick of Mr. Quest's bringing you here. He has got some fresh scheme on, I am sure of it from his face. Well, it can't be helped, and since you are here, Mr. Edward Cossey, tell me how you like my new dress," and she posed herself and courtesied before him. "Black, you see, to match my sins and show off my complexion. Doesn't it fit well?"

"Charmingly," he said, laughing in spite of himself, for he felt in no laughing mood, "and now I tell you what it is, Belle, I am not going to stop here all the morning, and lunch, and all that sort of thing. It does not look well, to say the least of it. The probability is that half the old women in Boisingham have got their eyes fixed on the hall door to see how long I stay. I shall go down to the office and come back at half past two."

"A very nice excuse to get rid of me," she said; "but I dare say you are right, and I want to see about the garden. There, good-by, and mind you are not late, for I want to have a nice drive round to the Castle. Not that there is much need to warn you to be in time when you are going to see Miss De la Molle, is it, Edward? Good-by, good-by."

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

## THE BASE-BALL SITUATION.

Base-ball enthusiasts, under which designation a considerable proportion of the active male population of the United States may be conceived to take rank, aver that never before in the history of the "national game," so called, has there been such rare promise of a successful season, to be marked at its close by a series of exciting contests for the championship honors. The leading clubs, both in the League and in the Association, are well together, a few games deciding the matter of superiority. The spirit of rivalry is keen, and there is a grim determination on the part of each club to capture, it may be, the first prize; to avoid, if possible, the ignominy of last place. The rivalry is none the less acute because the champions of last year have been put on the defensive, nor because the contest has practically resolved itself into a question of the supremacy of the East or of the West. Again, the players have, in base-ball parlance, "struck their gait," and have caught on the diamond the first breezes of that inspiration to victory which fans anew the feverish excitement of the base-ball devotee, and sends thousands of adherents into ecstasies over their favorite game as related to their favorite club.

The element of chance, without which even the "national game," in common with all legitimate sport, would lose much of its generous excitement and interest, has at no time been absent in the long succession of games already played, and clubs which began the season with brilliant uniforms, choice "mascots," and players whose fictitious values were expressed in thousands of the national currency, together with other marks of inevitable success, have, in the course of events, directed their energies to the avoidance of the final place in the championship list. The converse of the proposition is fairly demonstrated by the achievements of the New York Club, familiarly, "the Giants," whose playing early in the season brought discouragement to the local admirers, and whose recent victories in the West have awakened the highest degree of enthusiasm.

There have been few things to retard the successful advancement of the season, the weather, on the whole, has been propitious, the clubs have been evenly matched, and the general enthusiasm over base-ball has never been more eager. Naturally the sentiment of the supporters and lovers of the game is mainly of a local character. It manifests itself in an intense devotion to the fortunes of the home club, or in a combination of clubs, against other clubs and other combinations. The enthusiastic New-Yorker, for instance, pins his faith and his hopes to the capabilities of "the Giants," or he is convinced that the Brooklyn nine deserves his lung-power and yelling faculties for its support. In either case his preference will be for the Eastern clubs against those of the West. This phase of sectionalism, this ardent spirit of rivalry, is no slight factor in the wonderful and wide-spread popularity of base-ball.

The interest in base-ball has been so general and so well-sustained this year that one would almost imagine that the season was drawing to a close, and that elaborate preparations had been made by enterprising managers to secure a glorious outburst of popular enthusiasm to mark the finishing contests. And yet the schedules of games in both the League and the Association have not been half exhausted. Provision is made in both organizations for a series of 140 games, each club meeting every other club in twenty contests, one-half to be played "at home," and the other half "abroad." At the end of last week each League nine had played about sixty-two games, while the average of the Association nines was somewhat higher. The struggle, therefore, for the championship in each of the prominent organizations may be said to be just begun, and it is the prospect of a vigorous and exciting finish which has already rekindled the zeal of the enthusiast.

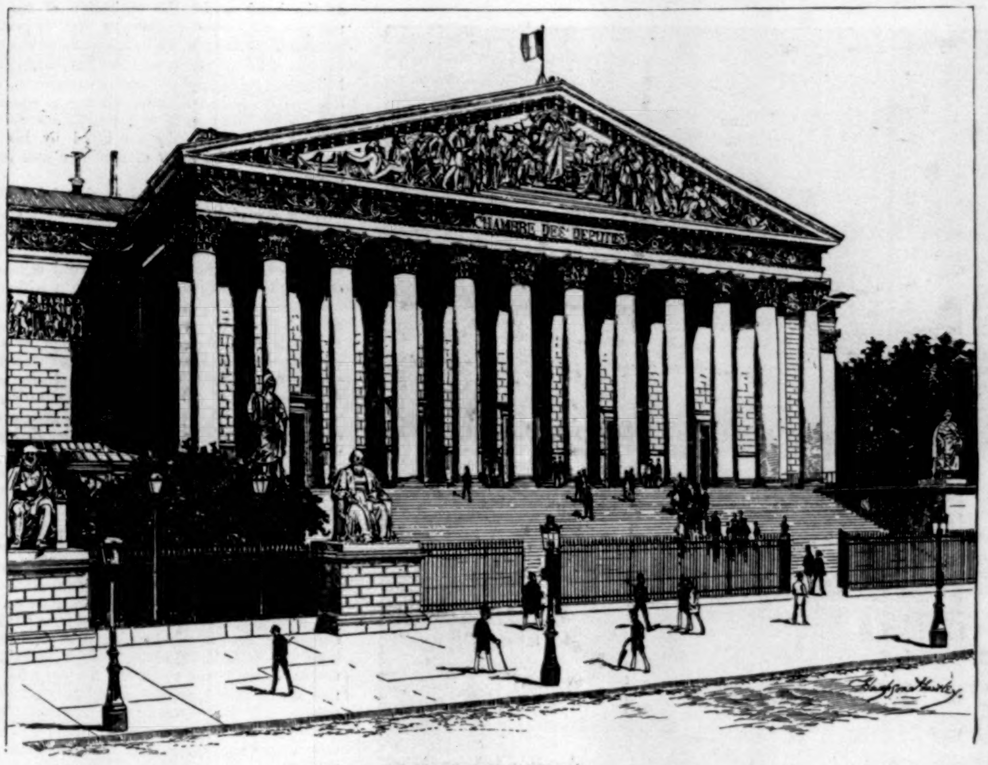
The Chicago Club still maintains its lead in the League contest. New York comes third, the Boston Club is fourth, with little promise of retaining the position. Philadelphia, Indianapolis, and Pittsburgh follow at varying intervals, and Washington is last, with defeats as numerous as Chicago's victories. Chicago is playing a remarkable game, which baffles analysis or explanation. As to its individual players, the club is inferior to several of its competitors; as a team, however, with all the advantages of systematic and harmonious action, it has few equals and no superiors. The Detroit Club continues to play with the same steadiness of purpose which won for it the championship last year, and which is sure to place the club well in the front ranks this season.

The adventures of the New York Club on the recent Western trip have awakened local interest to a remarkable degree. The club went to the West a fortnight ago with bright prospects of continuing there the successes already achieved at the Polo Grounds. The failure of the club to make as fine a record as it should have done is due fortunately to no fault of the players themselves. The entire outfield, O'Rourke, Slattery, and Tiernan, have, for sufficient reasons, been unable to play, and the club has consequently played under disadvantages, which, however, appear to be only temporary. Notwithstanding this, "the Giants" have won many notable victories on their trip, and after the process of recuperation has been completed one may reasonably hope for a resumption of the excellent play which is bound to secure victories.

The contests of the Association clubs have been full of animation, and the race is exceedingly interesting. The Brooklyn nine has been playing in capital form, and in spite of many difficulties on its Western trip, has managed still further to increase its lead. The vigorous play of the young men, popularly called "the Bridegrooms," has secured for the club a lead of seven victories over last year's champions — the St. Louis players. Whether the youngsters can hold out against the spirited and experienced play of the Westerners is a question which the development of the season alone can solve. The Athletic and Cincinnati clubs are close together in the fight for third place, and a desperate and pitiable struggle to be other than the last is being waged among the Baltimore, Louisville, Kansas City, and Cleveland clubs, with the chances of comparative primacy in the order named.

The spirited illustration accompanying this article depicts a condition in base-ball which even the casual base-ball admirer will be quick to recognize. The attitudes of the batter, the catcher, and the umpire indicate that the moment is a critical one. Four balls and two strikes have already been "called" on the expectant striker; the next ball to be pitched, therefore, will decide the present issue—it may be the game itself.

Frederick Evans.




THE PALAIS BOURBON.

## THE FRENCH CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.

By THEODORE CHILD.

The present Chamber of Deputies was elected in 1885 by *scrutin de liste*, and is composed of 584 Deputies, of whom one-third are Conservatives, either Monarchists or Imperialists, and two-thirds Republicans of various shades, ranging from moderate left-centre men all the way to extreme radicals and socialist révolutionnaires. If we classify them by their professions we shall find that the lawyers head the list, with, in round numbers, 140 members; next come landed proprietors, 60; doctors, 50; journalists and writers, 50; merchants, 30; farmers, 20; manufacturers, 20; working-men, 10. It may be useful to explain what is meant by *scrutin de liste*. Up to 1885 each subdivision of the department, or, to use the French term, each *arrondissement*, elected one Deputy for every 100,000 inhabitants, so that the Chamber contained 355 members. By the new law of 1885 each department votes for one single list of candidates for the whole department, at the rate of one member to every 70,000 inhabitants; but each department, no matter what the number of its inhabitants, elects at least three Deputies. There are two members for the territory of Belfort, six for Algiers, and ten for the colonies, thus making up the total of 584.

This *scrutin de liste* is the work of Gambetta, who succeeded in getting it accepted only after a number of failures, one of which caused his fall from power. The theory was that the vote by lists would be essentially a political vote; that it would suppress petty local influences; that it would render the Chamber accessible to distinguished men who had no fortune or landed situation; and finally, that it would give more unity to the representation of the nation because the vote of the whole department would crush merely local magnates. Experience, however, has shown that this theory is fallacious. The *scrutin de liste*, which was destined to serve the interests of the governmental republicans, and to be, as Gambetta put it, an "instrumentum regni," has really become an instrument of disorder and of revolution. In 1885 the Republicans lost seats; the *scrutin de liste*, even amongst the conservatives, has kept out of the Chamber more eminent men than it has brought in; it has sent to the Chamber a band of revolutionary socialists, of whom the last, M. Pyat, is not the least in his party; and furthermore, it is thanks to the *scrutin de liste* that General Boulanger is able to organize a legal plébiscite in his name. Recent events have proved that universal suffrage with the *scrutin de liste* is a mighty machine, but a machine that needs a mighty hand to govern it. When Gambetta was grand elector of France things went on all right. He had around him a party powerfully organized, with committees, newspapers, money, a programme, and the prestige of a glorious past. But with Gambetta all this disappeared, and the *scrutin de liste* remains with all its dangers and none of its advantages; and that is why the platform of the revision of the Constitution is readily accepted by the parliamentarians. The only way of combating by constitutional means a would-be dictator like Boulanger is to suppress *scrutin de liste* and to restore the old system of district voting.

But this is trespassing on the burning ground of contemporary politics. Let us return to the Chamber: its prerogatives, its powers, and its organization. In the first place, by the constitutional laws of 1875 and 1881 the sovereignty is said to belong expressly to the nation, and all powers exercised under it are, directly or indirectly, to have the nation for their source. The suffrage is universal. Every male citizen of twenty-one years of age is an elector, provided he has the qualification of six months' residence. Soldiers on active service cannot vote, and people convicted of crimes or misdemeanors lose their civic rights either permanently or for a fixed period. The people nominate the Deputies. The Deputies and other bodies elected directly, *i. e.*, the councils-general, the councils of *arrondissement*, and municipal councils, name a "college" to elect the Senators, whose mandate is of nine years' duration. The Senate and the Chamber together in Congress elect the President of the Republic, who in his turn nominates the judges, and in fact appoints to all civil and military offices on the proposition of his ministers, who are, of course, nominated by him, subject, of course, to parliamentary conditions. The President of the Republic has the right of pardon. He disposes of the armed forces of the nation, though he cannot declare war without the consent of the Chamber. On the other hand, he may dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, with the assent of the Senate, and on condition of providing for a new election within three months.

The Deputies are inviolable; they cannot be prosecuted without the consent of the Chamber. They have the privilege of free admission to the four theatres subventioned by the state, namely, the Comédie Française, the Odéon, the Opéra, and the Opéra Comique. They also travel gratis on all the French railways, and at all public ceremonies they sit in the chief seats. The insignia of the French Deputy are a tricolor scarf with gold fringe, a sort of plaque, familiarly known as a barometer, worn in the button-hole, and a silver medal on which the name of the Deputy is engraved. These insignia, however, are only worn on grand ceremonial occasions.

The Chamber has large prerogatives and powers; its assent is necessary to treaties of peace, and generally to all considerable state engagements. It makes laws and control all national affairs—the administration of the affairs of state, that is to say, the practical government being conducted through the executive power, namely, the President, the ministers, and their various departments, which in turn are in touch with the different administrative subdivisions of the country, and the hierarchy of officers, such as prefects, sub-prefects, and mayors.

After these preliminary explanations, let us pay a visit to that colossal Greek temple which heads the Pont de la Concorde, and bears on its façade the inscription, "Chambre des Députés." The very ground on which this palace is built seems to have been predestined to be the scene of human disputes. It was formerly a dependency of the Pré-aux-Clercs, and belonged to the Abbey of St. Germain des Prés. The innumerable duels which took place there caused the monks in the seventeenth century to fence round the ground, and this enclosure was bought by the dowager Duchess of Bourbon, who built herself a house there in 1722. Hence the name of Palais Bourbon, which has remained up to the present day. In 1790, by virtue of the decree which confiscated the goods of the *émigrés*, the Palais Bourbon became the property of the state, and the Council of Five Hundred held its sittings there. Subsequently Napoleon I. chose the Palais Bourbon for the sittings of the Corps Législatif. In 1807 was built the façade parallel to the quay, with its twelve columns and Greek pediment. The law of December 5, 1814, having restored the Palais Bourbon to the Bourbon-Condé family, the Prince de Condé let the temple to the government for a rent of 124,000 francs, and finally in 1827 the government of the Restoration bought the palace for $1,100,000. The Prince de Condé, however, retained a lodging in a part of the palace; but after 1830 the government bought this remaining portion from the Duc d'Aumale, heir of the Prince de Condé, for a million dollars. In 1832 the palace was reconstructed, and the present session-house built, the façade remaining, of course, intact, with its majestic steps, and at the foot, along the quay, four colossal statues of Sully, Colbert, De L'Hôpital, and D'Aguesseau. This is all historic ground. The famous Pont de la Concorde, over which we pass to reach the Chamber, is built with the ruins of the Bastile, and has many times been the road of triumphal processions, and also of revolutions. It was from the top of these steps that on May 4, 1848, the Constituent Assembly proclaimed the Second Republic in a unanimous movement of faith, hope, and enthusiasm, and in presence of a vast crowd assembled on the quays, on the bridge, and on the Place de la Concorde. Eleven days later, May 15th, the Assembly was invaded by the members of the political clubs of Paris and a raging crowd, led by Blanqui, who enacted, according to an eye-witness, "scenes worthy of the Bicêtre mad-house." The Chamber has in all been three times violated and stormed by an insurrectionary mob, namely, on February 24th and May 15, 1848, and on September 4, 1870. Between 1870 and 1879 the Chamber sat at Versailles, and since its return to Paris, although on certain days the Parisian mob has gathered in menacing numbers around the palace, there has happily been no serious disorder, thanks to the wise precautions taken in the display of large forces of police and cavalry, whose lines keep the crowd at a respectful distance from the Temple of Discord.

The entrance to the Chamber is not up the grand steps, but by an insignificant side door. Supposing that you wish to speak to a Deputy, you send in your card through a series of red-waistcoated ushers, who with very inadequate show of politeness introduce you into the Salle des Pas Perdus, also called the Salle de la Paix, doubtless because it is one of the noisiest places in Paris. In the Salle des Pas Perdus you see journalists by the score button-holing Deputies and talking matters over; influential electors, who have come to see their Deputy; solicitors of all kinds; and on grand days the whole life of the Chamber is more in this "Hall of Lost Steps" than in the House itself, for it is here that all the plotting and planning is done by which ministries are overthrown and interpellations arranged; and in one corner, under the inspiring shadow of a statue of Minerva, the journalists have the privilege of scribbling notes and of forging wings for the items that are known in the newspaper world by the significant name of "canards." Here is as far behind the scenes as the profane may penetrate, for of course no stranger can be admitted to the House, or into the bureaus or committee-rooms, where the business of the Chamber is chiefly managed.

The President of the Chamber of Deputies lives in a palace adjoining the legislative temple, and connected with it by means of a handsome gallery, which the Duc de Morny inaugurated, and which saw the famous fêtes of *Monsieur Chonfleury* in the palmy days of the Empire. It is now the hour of the opening of the sitting, generally about two o'clock. There is a beating of drums and a blowing of trumpets, a marshalling of soldiers in line, and a clatter of presenting arms as the President appears in the gallery, preceded by ushers, followed by secretaries, and accompanied by officers with drawn swords, commanding his guard of honor. In such state he proceeds across the Salle des Pas Perdus up to the door of the House, where he turns and salutes the officers, and so enters and mounts the steps of the bureau.

Two swinging doors covered with green velvet, one on each side of the bureau, give access to the House. The Chamber is a vast semicircular building like a theatre, lighted from the roof, and surrounded by Ionic pilasters of white Carrara marble with gilt capitals; the diameter of the arc is occupied by the President and the secretaries, the arc by the public, and the intervening space by the Deputies. In the galleries are tribunes reserved for the members of the Parisian press, the departmental press, and the foreign press, while the two public galleries are subdivided and classified in true French fashion, with reserved tribune for the ministers, the diplomatic corps, the Senate, a tribune for ladies, etc., It is perhaps not strictly exact to say that there is a special ladies' tribune, for you see pretty faces and elegant toilets scattered all over the galleries, and the ushers are always gallant enough to place the ladies in the front rows. On great occasions, such, for instance, as the overthrowing of a cabinet, the ladies are as eager to get a seat at the Chamber as they would be to obtain a stall at the first performance of a new sensational piece by Sardou. The Chamber is as thrilling or as amusing a theatre as any. Our illustration shows the representatives of the Cologne *Gazette*, the *Fanfulla*, the *Neue Freie Presse*, the *Novoie Vremia*, and other great newspapers of England and of the Continent, watching the tragi-comedy from their tribune with the attentive indifference of men who are discharging an unenviable professional duty.

The 584 Deputies occupy the whole floor of the House, and their seats, rising in an ampitheatre, command the orator's tribune from every part. The gangways spread out fanwise from the President's chair as a centre, and parties are designated as they sit to right or left of the President, the extremes of opinions being on the end benches, the ultra-conservatives on the extreme right, and the ultra-radicals on the extreme left. The bureau of the Chambers is composed of a President, four Vice-Presidents, three questeurs, and eight secretaries. The tribune is of marble, and on the wall above it is an immense piece of Gobelins tapestry representing the "School of Athens," with on each side statues of Order and Liberty. The general color of the walls and upholstery is red, and the whole aspect is gay and luminous.

The President has on each side of him four secretaries, and behind him the general secretary of the Presidency, the "prompter," who is always ready to give the President information about the rules of the House, procedure, and order of business. In front of the bureau and below the President is the tribune, with to the right and left desks for the stenographers, and at the foot of the tribune is a table for more stenographers. The ministerial benches are the first in the amphitheatre, and the benches of the commissions are on the left of the President. Each Deputy has in front of his seat a desk, with paper, pens, ink, envelops, blue and white voting papers with his name printed on them, a copy of the Constitution and of the rules of the Chamber, and also a paper-knife, which he uses generally to make a noise by pounding his desk with it. A detail worth noticing: the banging of desk lids, which used to be a favorite means of manifesting discontent, has been prevented during the past few years by cork buffers, which allow the desks to be closed noiselessly.

The ordinary sitting of the Chamber offers very little interest. You see an orator at the tribune making a speech to which few listen, and absorbing at intervals a glass of water or a glass of wine. Gambetta always drank wine in the tribune, so did Thiers. In the body of the House you see scattered about a number of Deputies, some writing letters, others with their opera-glasses scanning the tribunes to see if they know any of the ladies present, others talking aloud regardless of the repeated cries of the ushers, "Silence, messieurs, s'il vous plâit." Every minute somebody goes out or comes in; the ministers with their portfolios of office sit on their benches ready to take part in the debate, and to give information. But the moment anything of interest occurs the Deputies come rushing in from the bar, from the smoking-room, and from the lobbies, and the hubbub begins, and the cries and interruptions and hammering of desks. The more animated the debate grows, the more the floor of the House resembles a den of wild beasts. There is no exaggeration, I suppose, in saying that the French Chamber is the most disorderly and indecorous assembly in the world. No words can give an idea of the scene when the radicals and the extreme conservatives rise to their feet, foam at the mouth, shake their fists at each other, and fling abuse across the floor, while the President rings his bell furiously, and the ushers shout themselves hoarse, and fail to dominate the roaring and howling and furious invective of these representatives of the sovereign people. Such a sight is calculated to give one but a poor idea of the reasoning powers of humanity or of the blessings of parliamentary government. And yet there is no doubt that these Deputies are honest and sincere men as a rule; but they are so divided in opinion and so broken up into cliques and bands that union is impossible. The Chamber of 1885 has passed most of the time since its election in squabbling and fighting against itself, overthrowing ministry after ministry simply for the purpose of defeating such and such a section and such and such a group. Certainly the Deputies are unconscious of the shamefulness of the spectacle of their debates. After the most stormy and regrettable scenes, the moment the sitting is over they leave the Chamber arm-in-arm, with joy in their hearts, chuckling over the defeat of so-and-so, but rarely caring about the interests of the country.

The business of the Chamber is transacted chiefly by the bureaux and by the Committee of Initiative. The bureaux, eleven in number, are elected by lot from the whole House on the first of every month, and every member must belong to one or other of them. The Committee of Initiative is elected by the House. When a member wishes to introduce a bill, it is first examined by the committee, and if favorably reported upon it is introduced. It is then sent simultaneously to all the eleven bureaux, and each bureau, after examining it, names from its own body one or two members of a commission to report upon it in detail. This report is laid before the Chamber, and upon it the general debate is engaged. For bills emanating from the government the formality is somewhat different. Bills pass at the second reading. They are voted article by article, and finally as a whole. Under ordinary circumstances a measure takes a long time to pass through both Houses, but in exceptional cases "urgency" may be declared, which dispenses with one of the two readings. Laws are considered to be promulgated by the publication of their text in the *Journal Officiel*.

A question may be asked in the House, after notice, at the beginning or at the end of the sitting; an interpellation requires the formal leave of the House, the acceptation of the government, the fixing of a day for the debate, and the interpellation ends with the vote of "the order of the day pure and simple" to the effect that the House will resume the ordinary course of business, or with the "order of the day *motivé*," explaining why it resumes, with what sentiments of confidence or want of confidence in the ministry. An interpellation only too frequently ends in the fall of the cabinet. Since 1871 the Floquet cabinet

is the twenty-third that France has had. The Presidency of M. THIERS saw only one ministry; Marshal MACMAHON, two; President GRÉVY, twelve. As for President CARNOT, he has as yet only reached his second ministry. Within these eighteen years the cabinet that lived the longest was the second FERRY cabinet, which lasted from February, 1883, to March, 1885.

The natural vivacity and verbosity of the Deputies has led to the creation of most complex rules of debate, which doubtless cause members to take the law into their own hands, feeling that what with inscriptions and bureaux and committees they have to wait too long for the satisfaction of a passing grievance. Hence the frequency of interruptions and the disorderliness of their debates in general. According to the rules, "orators" are "inscribed" for their turn to speak in order of demand. Each one mounts the tribune and speaks, but the President may authorize a member to speak from his place—a thing very rarely done. In dealing with unruly and rebellious members the President has at his disposal various disciplinary means: he may call a member to order, forbid him to speak again during the sitting, or apply the "simple censure," or the "censure with exclusion from the House" for a fortnight or a month, which implies forfeiture of pay, and also the cost of printing and posting bills for the official announcement in the department which the guilty member represents. The members vote on measures by secret or public vote, but in each case they drop their tickets, with or without their names, into urns which are handed round by the ushers.

We have noticed in the hémicycle at the foot of the tribune a table where, as soon as the sitting is opened, three or four persons take their seats; this is the table of the secrétaires-rédacteurs, who write an analytic report of the proceedings, which is published in the evening papers, and also in the Parisian and provincial morning papers, the dimensions of the verbatim report being such that the *Journal Officiel* alone can give it hospitality in its elastic columns. There are six of these secrétaires-rédacteurs, and three assistant secretaries, whose duty it is to draw up an analytic report of the debates, containing about thirty per cent. of the words pronounced. This report is printed in fragments while the sitting is going on, and distributed to the newspapers. The analytic report of a sitting amounts to two and a half columns for the Paris journals and one column for the departmental journals. These secrétaires-rédacteurs also draw up the procès-verbal or minutes of the sittings.

The verbatim reports of the debates are made by three directors, six sténographes-réviseurs, and fifteen stenographers. These short-hand writers are divided into two categories, *rouleurs* and *réviseurs*, who work each independently, but simultaneously and in harmony. Two short-hand writers are placed like two augurs at the foot of the tribune, one to the right and one to the left. They work standing, their paper placed on a desk three feet long, fixed breast-high, and facing the Chamber, a view of which they command. The stenographer on the left is the *rouleur*, and the one on the right the *réviseur*. The *rouleur* works two minutes. A chronometer, of which the single hand goes round in two minutes, marking the seconds, is hung up before him, and at his right waits the man who is to succeed him. As soon as the hand marks the expiration of the two minutes, the second *rouleur*, by word or gesture, notifies his colleague, who slips away to write out his notes in the lobby of the Chamber. There being ten stenographers in the category of *rouleurs*, each one has eighteen minutes to write out his "copy," that is to say, nine times the two minutes of stenography employed by his colleagues before his turn of service comes round again.

THE JOURNALISTS' CORNER (SALLE DES PAS PERDUS).

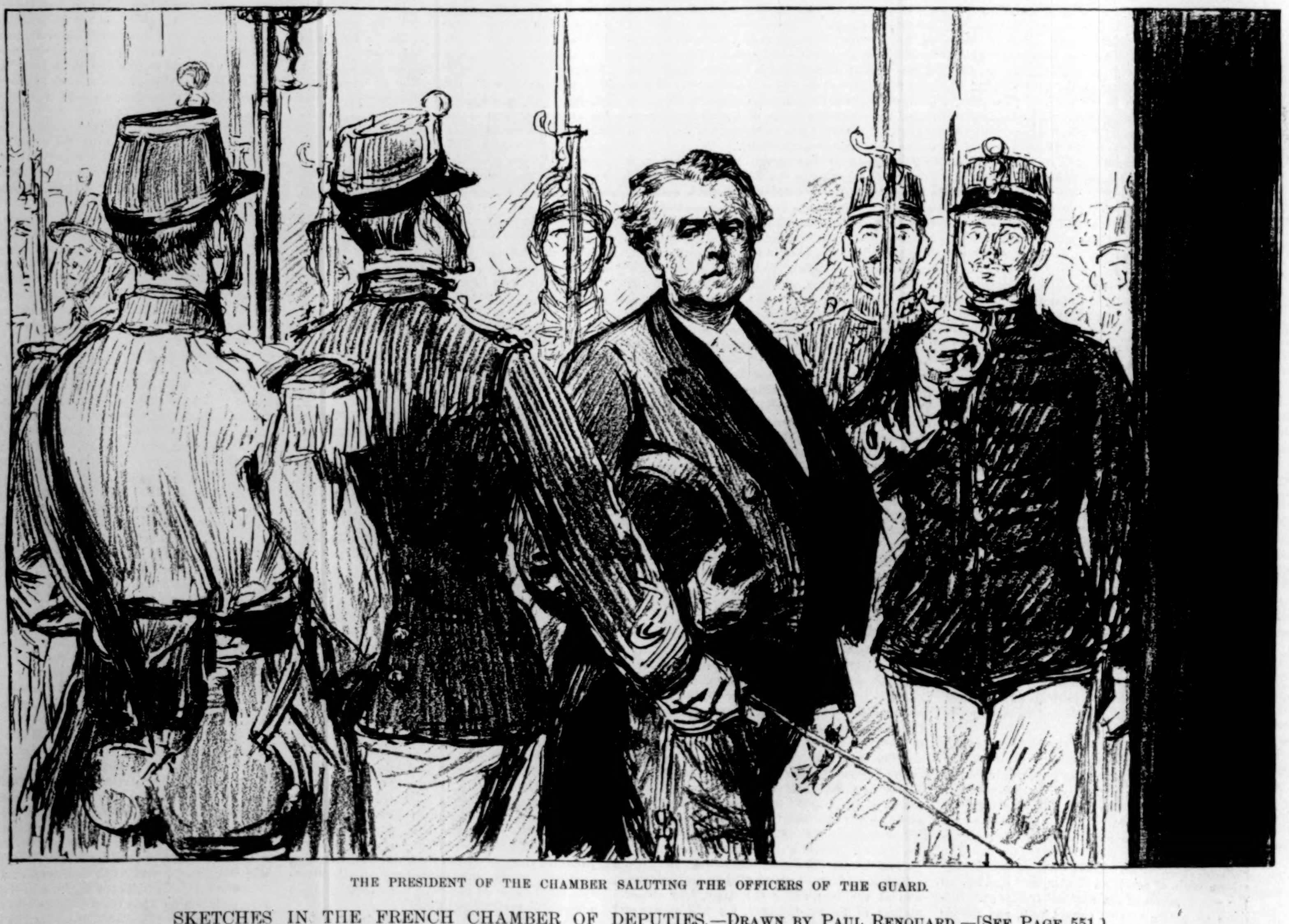
The *réviseurs*, who stand at the right of the tribune are eight in number, and work each a quarter of an hour. Accordingly as the *rouleurs* have written out their notes in long on pages numbered in series of five, this copy is handed over to the *réviseurs*, who compare it with their own stenography, correct mistakes, fill in omissions, and strike out repetitions. The "copy" in this state is passed to the speakers, who can in their turn make corrections, after which the manuscript is given to the printer. In the evening *réviseurs* and speakers read over the proofs, and the chief of the stenographers goes over it carefully, endeavoring to give to the sitting its veritable physiognomy, as the French say. For not only are the orators' words noted in the *Journal Officiel*, but every interruption and almost every gesture.

The object of the division of labor by two minute "takes" is to enable the verbatim report to be finished exactly twenty minutes after the sitting is over, whatever may have been its length. An hour later the report may be printed. If the stenographers had fifteen minute "takes," supposing that it requires eight or nine times longer to write in long-hand than in short-hand, the verbatim report would not be complete until two hours and a quarter after the end of the debate, and consequently the *Journal Officiel* would not get to press in time. This method of reporting was invented by M. HIPPOLYTE PRÉVOST, formerly chief of the short-hand service in the Chamber of Peers, and in the Legislative Assembly of 1848. It has been adopted by the Chambers of Germany, Italy, Belgium, and Spain.

The budget of the Chamber may be calculated in round numbers as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Salaries of Deputies, at 25 francs a day, or 9000 francs a year, 584 Deputies | 5,256,000 |
| Salary of the President of the Chamber | 72,000 |
| Salaries of the questeurs | 27,000 |
| Salaries of the ordinary and auxiliary employés | 720,000 |
| Salaries of day workmen | 40,000 |
| Stationery | 40,000 |
| Printing | 300,000 |
| Heating | 55,000 |
| Lighting | 122,000 |
| Livery for employés | 25,000 |
| Keeping up the building and furniture | 150,000 |
| *Journel Officiel* | 30,000 |
| Cost of Parliamentary commissions | 50,000 |
| Miscellaneous | 130,000 |
| | 7,017,000 |

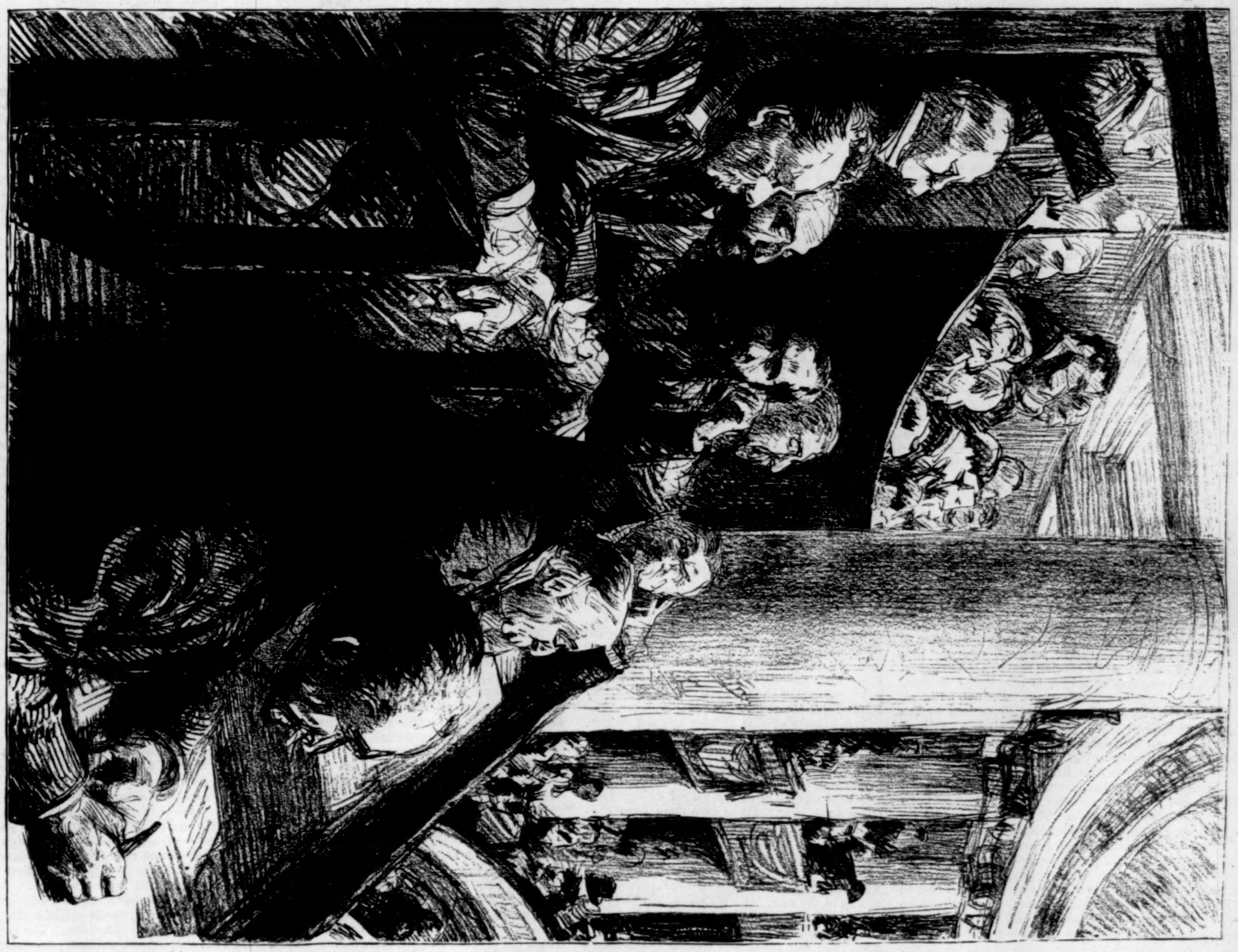
Or say, in round numbers, seven millions of francs per annum. The ten ministers are paid 60,000 francs a year each, but this sum concerns the budgets of the various departments, and not the special budget of the Chamber of Deputies.



THE PRESIDENT OF THE CHAMBER SALUTING THE OFFICERS OF THE GUARD.

SKETCHES IN THE FRENCH CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.—DRAWN BY PAUL RENOUARD.—[SEE PAGE 551.]

THE CHAMBER AS SEEN FROM THE FOREIGN PRESS BOX, WITH CLEMENCEAU MAKING A SPEECH.



THE TRIBUNE OF THE FOREIGN PRESS.

THE FRENCH CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.—Drawn by Paul Renouard.—[See Page 551.]

## THE SONG OF THE SCYTHE.

Far up on the mountain-side,
Where swiftly, like phantoms, glide
The cloud-land shadows,
I hear a mower's scythe,
With a busy sound and blithe,
In the rocky meadows.

Hark!—on the breeze conveyed
The rhythmic rush of the blade,
By strong arms whirled!
It sings, in a murmurous tone,
Of work to be bravely done
In this busy world.

Sometimes, with a jangling tone,
The bright blade strikes a stone,
But seems to cry:
"'Tis naught! Let the worries pass.
There needs must be stones in the grass
For all who try."

Thus, wind-borne all day long,
You may hear the scythe's brave song
On the mountain farms.
But the mower little knows
Of the song that comes and goes
As he swings his arms.

James Buckham.

## THE PROGRESS AND PROMISE OF HONDURAS.

It is very interesting to note what a factor our countrymen are becoming and what position they are taking in the development of the Spanish-American republics. The English and German nations sought that trade, and to secure it established a commerce, and became the purchasers of their mahogany, hides, indigo, and coffee. The people from these nations built stores and warehouses, secured profit, and were satisfied. The only influence they exercised upon the native was to introduce from Europe some of its customs and its productions. They taught him nothing. In fact his ignorance was to them a sort of available asset on which they traded. Gradually the North-American found his way thither, and first became the purchaser of their fruit. But he did not stop there. Next he became a producer—a factor in agricultural development near the northern coast; then a pioneer to the interior; and he followed this with the commencing of the opening of highways of commerce to the coasts. He came to stay. It needs no ghost to come from the grave to tell us that the progressive element, and the hope of this entire continent—of half the world—lie in and through the adventure, the hardihood, the brains, and the capital of the citizens of the United States.

The descendants of the Spanish explorers have failed to make these countries worthy their natural resources, climate, and geographical position. The Europeans traded with them merely for temporary gain. The North-American—trained for generations in the work of felling forests to plant gardens, of turning wild prairies into wheat fields, of penetrating mines to secure wealth, of connecting, through wonderful feats of engineering, distant points of the country with the great market centres, of developing, not merely a city or a State, but a nation in all of its possibilities—has recognized in this vast Spanish-American territory a new India. He has begun the introduction of modern ideas and methods there which are revolutionizing three hundred years of stagnation, and beginning to create a commerce worthy the name, and which he is to control. Of all the Central-American republics, Honduras is least advanced in internal improvements. Though the first place of landing on the American continent by the voyagers with Columbus, and afterward the favored colony of Spain on account of the vast amount of gold and silver sent to the mother-country, it suffered most when the revolution of 1821 forced the Spaniard to withdraw. The capital and intelligence needed to properly work its mines were lost, and in these were alike its wealth and its hope. The native, left owner, was found lacking the skill of his ancestor. Besides, war had impoverished him, and this made his progress still slower. Sixty years passed, and his civilization showed no advance. He manufactured nothing. He did not even have a saw-mill to cut up the fine mahogany of his forests. He had accepted the inheritance left him: he did not know how to use it.

This republic presents a large northern coast, with but an angle resting on the Pacific. Its principal northern ports are Omoa, Puerto Cortéz, and Trujillo. Its Pacific port is Amapala, on Tiger Island. All freight delivered there is lightered across the bay of Fonseca to either La Brea or San Lorenzo, on the main-land, a distance of thirty-six miles. The projected interoceanic railway was surveyed from Puerto Cortéz across to the bay on the Pacific side, and complete profiles made. After grading some sixty miles, and poorly equipping thirty, to San Pedro de Sula, the enterprise was abandoned. But not, however, until $27,000,000 of bonds, guaranteed by the Republic of Honduras, were floated in the London and Paris markets, and their proceeds diverted largely to personal ends and uses. This debt represents in itself a fraud, perpetrated upon the innocent purchasers of these bonds, and upon this weak republic. The interest on them has been left unpaid. That fact became generally known, and without inquiry as to the causes for this default financial centres throughout the world declared Honduras bankrupt, and all possible development for a time was checked. But, during the past year, a syndicate has been formed in London which made a proposition to Honduras last February to take up and cancel these old bonds, and build the road across the continent, providing a liberal land grant were given (in sections seven and a half miles square on either side of the projected line), and this proposition was accepted in March by the President and his ministers, and ratified by the National Assembly.

The possibilities this highway will open to the republic are such as can only be fully appreciated by those who have travelled over its wilderness of winding mule paths, through fertile plains and valleys, forests of Spanish cedar and mahogany, and "*Minerales*" of both deserted and unopened mines.

While Marco A. Soto was President (from 1876 to 1883) the opening of the fruit trade and the making of internal improvements were commenced. A national telegraph line was established, free schools with compulsory attendance, a well-equipped hospital at Tegucigalpa, a boulevard roadway started from the capital to the Pacific coast, the tithes taken from the Roman Catholic Church, thus entirely separating it from the state, and last and greatest, he invited the citizens of our country to join and assist in the work of development. Himself a careful reader of history, he saw that from European nations no permanent good had been gained, but recognized in the North American the creator of prosperous nations. He became enthusiastic to secure so valuable an auxiliary, and United States citizenship became a passport for favors sometimes unworthily bestowed. On several occasions adventurers from our country presumed too much. One in particular I may mention. He was then engaged as agent for a firm conducting a store of general merchandise at Roatan, and looking over the revenues received at that port and at others of the Bay Islands, conceived the idea of a fine speculation. He applied to Soto, asking to be made governor of these islands, with full power to assess and determine the duties (*derechos*), and for this favor, privilege, power (whatever it may be called), he offered to pay three thousand dollars per annum. Mr. Soto gave me a copy of his reply to this proposition. It is concise, classical, and pungent—almost worthy a place in history—none of its terseness being lost by a translation in English:

"Tegucigalpa, *August* 17, 1880.

"Sir,—I have seen with profound indignation the letter which you had the simplicity to address me under date of May last. The proposition which you make me is stupid and impertinent. Do you suppose, sir, that I speculate in the interests of the nation? Do you imagine that this country is put up at public auction, and at the disposal of the first adventurous shopkeeper who may wish to bid for it? Your propositions bear a seal of impudent effrontery that, as President of this republic, I cast them from me with anger, and as a gentleman I scorn them. Believe me, sir, what you deserve is that I should have you indicted, in order that you might learn how to approach a man of honor in a responsible public position. In giving you this reply, I expect that you will not again molest my attentions by your importunities.

"I am, sir, your obedient servant,
"Marco A. Soto."

Ill health and some unfortunate complications with General Barrios, of Guatemala, caused Soto to resign in 1883, when an election was called, and General Luis Bogran elected constitutional President, and in 1887 he was re-elected for a second term. With the new foreign element gaining a footing and finding the absolute security to capital invested there, with a national telegraph line established that gave the interior *pueblos* (through the Central American cable) commercial connection with the whole world, Bogran saw at a glance the policy to be pursued to advance his country. He was a soldier, and tenacious of his reputation and honor. He had enjoyed the advantages of European training and travel. One of his first acts after election was to personally write to all the managers of the North-American enterprises, assuring them of his cordial support and protection. This promise has been more than faithfully kept.

During one of my visits to Tegucigalpa, the capital city of Honduras, I secured the services of the government librarian, Antonio R. Vallejo, in making an examination of the old records which show the royalties paid the crown by the owners of mines during Spanish supremacy. These old manuscripts are well preserved and fairly well indexed. They tell the story of daring and romantic Spain. When a district paid the mother-country large royalties of silver and gold, she did not try to improve the industry, or encourage the adventurous pioneers by lessening the imposed taxes (they were twenty per cent. on the gross product), but she decorated the district or town. Let me quote a passage or two selected from these records: "The flourishing state of the mining interests and the large returns they brought the crown influenced the king so that on the 17th day of July, 1768, there was given to the *pueblos* [villages] of San Miguel, Tegucigalpa, and Heredia the honorable titles of *Villas*" (cities). The El Corpus mine of Choluteca is mentioned as "being so rich and the ores so abundant that a doubt arose if the metal were really gold." And when it had been determined that it was, and that a rich chimney of ore was yielding the fabulous sum of $10,000 per ton, "the king caused a *caja* [treasury-house where the king's fifths were collected] to be established at the mine, and caused the department to be called, 'My Royal Tamarinds.'"

The legends of this country are not of love, adventure, and battle, but of the yield of these mines; of smugglers whose night encampment fires revealed ledges of ore; of vagabonds who replenished their purses from veins whose location was kept secret; of vessels loaded with gold and silver sunk near ports to save them from English privateers. However ignorant the native may be found in the political history or geography of his own country, he is voluble when asked of the mines; and with his superlatives he will always tell some new story of their phenomenal output in the past. All his patriotism (it is not great) and national pride seem to be founded on the fact that his country was once the glory of Spain, and that the richest treasures beneath its mountains have never been unlocked. Among the greatest of the historical mines may be named the Guayabilla, in the Yuscaran district, situated east from Tegucigalpa some fifty miles, and near the Nicaragua line. The elevation here is 3250 feet, the extremes of the climate being from 55° to 85° Fahrenheit, with the mercury a greater portion of the entire year in the seventies. It is difficult to determine from tradition or these records the average richness of the ores taken from this mine and worked. That it was rich in gold and silver is true; that ore averaging less than $60 per ton was left on the dump, that $60,000 was, after its desertion, taken out in a few months by a gentleman now residing there, and that the king's fifths from 1812 to 1817 amounted to $400,000, showing a yield of $2,000,000 in five years, are also true. After reaching a depth of about 300 feet, water prevented these early miners from going deeper, as the situation of the mine did not permit drainage by a tunnel of any feasible length. But Spanish avarice did not permit a desertion with the rich supporting pillars left behind, the removing of which the excellent mining laws of the country forbade. Efforts were made to have that particular law repealed when the lowest then attainable depths had been reached. Succeeding in this, the dangerous work of taking out these supports commenced; and within four months avarice and vandalism had done their work, the mine caved in, preventing any further inspection by those who came later, and only its history was left. From these pillars there was bullion extracted to the amount of $500,000. This work, the last done there by the natives, was in the year 1837. The ruins of an old Yngenio are found a little distance below the mine on the corner-stone of which is this inscription, "*Este Yngenyo es dedycado á las Beatyss Trynidad*," "These reduction-works are dedicated to the blessed Trinity." The Quemasones mine, in the same district, is second only to the Guayabilla in romantic legends. In a rich chimney of ore one tells us there was found a mass of pure silver that was given the old church, and became the frame or chandelier to hold the candles over the altar. The Platero, Flores, Malacate, Capiro, Sacramento, and Monserrat might be grouped next in renown, but at least fifty mines can be cited in this "Mineral" that were once active and paid royalties to the crown. In the Tegucigalpa and Choluteca districts fully a hundred mines were worked with great profit; but with the exception of the Corpus in Choluteca, and the Mina Grande and Los Niños in Tegucigalpa, less of romance seems to be woven about them, though celebrated as large bullion producers, for which the Rosario, San Francisco, and Tenero were also especially famous.

It is not the purpose of this article to enumerate the many companies now at work in opening these and other old mines, or actually extracting ores from deeper levels than the early miners ever reached; but suffice it to say that the Quemasones is again an ore-producer, and has been found worthy its reputation, that the new shaft of the great Guayabilla is down over two hundred feet, and being driven below the old workings with the aid of all modern appliances, that the Capiro and Monserrat are again active, and that days spent in Yuscaran by the traveller will be busy ones. He will be taken from one mine to another, through old works down notched sticks, and in galleries filled with foul air. Next he is shown more modern methods, and conducted through tunnels in the mountains with their cars on the track passing out to the tramway, down finely timbered shafts with their several compartments challenging his admiration, and then he would see the hoist bringing the car to the surface and sending it forward to the mill. If he followed the ore to the drying-room, he would see it next crushed by heavy stamps, thence it is passed to the roasting furnaces, thence to ponderous pans automatically settling metal from the pulp, thence to ovens retorting the bullion from the quicksilver, and the mould receiving it, and last to the weighing-room, which tells of so much added wealth to the world. Divers causes might be cited as tending to bring about the dormant condition of the mining industry in Honduras for so many years. First, it is to be noted that the native was unable to cope with two fundamental questions presented in deep mining—water and foul air. His system of entering a mine by a series of *posos* (shafts ten or twelve feet in depth), and short levels running from one to the other, made the question of ventilation more complicated even to the expert than with the modern perpendicular or inclined shaft; and since no system of pumps was known, drainage was only possible when the location of the mine rendered tunnelling practicable. Then, prior to the administration of Soto, the want of a settled government with a clearly defined policy doubtless restrained the introduction of foreign capital; and the fact of these mines being situated in the mountains, far from the coast, with no approach except by rude mule paths, will account for a seeming lethargy on the part of the adventurer and pioneer.

When the subject of a highway to the coast was brought to the attention of General Bogran, he was found equal to the occasion. Simple as this need will appear to the reader, it must be remembered that for three hundred years this country had found in the pack-mule not merely its only means of transportation, but that thereby all the requirements of the producer, merchant, and householder had been met. "All roads lead to Rome," and all highways started from the Imperial City, and thence continued to the projected point. A Latin race would naturally follow such teachings, and hence Soto had a boulevard road built from Tegucigalpa over the Cerro de Hule (which has an elevation of five thousand feet) toward the Pacific coast, extending it a distance of twenty-five miles; but as neither a wagon nor the parts of a wagon could well be carried by the pack-mule over the intervening mountains between the terminus of this boulevard and the port, it presented simply an admirable road-bed, suggesting possibilities if a connection were made with the coast. Bogran, acting under the advice of American engineers, completed a wagon-road from the Pacific port of San Lorenzo to meet this and connect the capital with the port. A force of one hundred and seventy-five men was employed for eleven months to build it around the mountains to the terminus of the macadamized boulevard, and from Tegucigalpa thence fifty miles to Yuscaran, which an enthusiastic expert has named the "Comstock of Central America." Perhaps it may be proved to be such—*Quien sabe?* The work of internal improvements did not stop here. A New York company is dredging the Aguan River, and building canals to connect the Olancho district with the northern ports. One of our great railway systems has recently had a survey made to determine the feasibility of building a railway from Puerto Cortéz eastward, near the coast, in the interest of the fruit trade; other important internal improvements are being made in Olancho, and carbonate mines are being opened at La Union; and last and greatest is the promised completion of the interoceanic, transcontinental railway by the London syndicate.

The capital city, Tegucigalpa, received its name from two Indian words signifying "mountain of silver." The climate is healthful; and as the elevation is but two hundred feet lower than Yuscaran, the average temperature is about the same. It is situate inland eighty miles from the port on the bay of Fonseca, and has about fifteen thousand inhabitants. The houses are of adobe, the streets narrow and paved with stone. Houses and stores are built flush with the streets, with *patios*, or courts, back. The only structures worthy of mention are the cathedral, of Moorish architecture, and the old arched bridge across the Rio Grande. It is a strangely quiet city. There are no factories, no machinery of any kind in operation, no trains of cars to break the stillness with their noise, no carriages nor *diligencias*—not a single thing to suggest the activity of a town. The mint itself, though its coinage may reach $20,000 silver per month, hardly produces a sound to be heard beyond its heavy walls. The university located here is well sustained, and substantially up to the requirements of the country, though it is far inferior to the University of Guatemala, in the capital city of that republic. In the public square is a bronze equestrian statue of Francisco Morazan (a son of Honduras, who is honored as the liberator of Central America from the mother-country), on the pedestal of which is engraved, "September 15, 1821"—still celebrated as the *dia de la patria* on which the republic was born.

I once attended a ball in Tegucigalpa during the carnival season. It was quite an event, as the President and his ministers were there, and they brought the best society of the capital together. Upon entering the salon each visitor was presented with handsomely painted egg-shells by servants who carried them about on salvers. I supposed at first that they were given as souvenirs of the occasion, but soon discovered my mistake. They were filled with gold and silver tinsel, and were used as missiles of friendship or love. Gentlemen who wished to show special favoritism for any particular lady threw an egg-shell at her and scattered the tinsel over her pretty head and shoulders. And if a lady wanted to favor a gentleman, she did it in the same unique way. If the favoritism to be expressed was very great, the shells were not thrown, but were held in the hand and broken over the favorite's head. Another feature was the carrying by nearly every lady and the more sentimental of the gentlemen of atomizers filled with choice perfumery. The etiquette seemed to be that if the atomizer was turned toward one's face or eyes, he must brave the shot, stand firm, and receive it, then join the laugh which followed. The effect of all this was to give zest and sparkle to the entertainment, and break the ice of formality. The gentlemen appeared in the customary dress suit, while some of the ladies wore dresses imported from Paris, which were as charmingly décolleté as any to be found in New York receptions. Prominent as these features were, there was still another of an equally sociable nature. At all fine parties in these republics there is a *cantina* (bar) set up in one room, where beers, wines, liquors, champagne, and especially *aguardiente del pais* (native rum) are served and free to all. The ladies are liberal drinkers—in fact the climate seems to permit and warrant it. If one offer a lady a glass of wine or brandy, she will take it, and ask her server where his is. Next she will insist that he fill his glass quite as full as the one she holds, then she will touch glasses with "*salud*," and take a sip; and then, looking her companion straight in the eye, she will cry "*todo*," and he only wins her favor by draining the last drop from the glass before taking it from his lips—she, meantime, has done the same. With this drinking the ladies grow radiant and brilliant, though there never is a suggestion of their "losing their heads."

The notion which many have that the Presidents of these republics are gamesters, playing with marked cards, and winning at the expense of their several countries, is not true. It was a partial truth of their past, but it is not a truth of to-day. These people are developing. Education is becoming more general, and with it a national sentiment is growing among the people. That national sentiment respects all just laws, and breathes the spirit of liberty and right. The hope of Honduras may therefore be summed up in this: Intelligent development continued under the direction of the North-American. Its mines have attracted him first, and with their working will come other highways opening the interior more generally with the coasts. The large shipments of supplies and machinery necessary to this

end will assure the early construction of a railway across the continent, if it be not assured already.

FLOYD B. WILSON.

## THE WAGE-EARNERS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

THERE will be found on another page a picture which is full of significance to those who are familiar with the condition of the wage-earners in the coal and iron regions of Pennsylvania. It is a picture of a band of immigrants sitting by the wayside of a railway station. Their destination is indicated by the mining village in the distance. The busy-looking man who is talking to them is the company's agent, who is taking them to their new homes. He met them at Castle Garden, probably, and has kept them together and conducted them to his own and their employers. They have travelled in emigrant cars, which are a little more comfortable than cattle cars. Probably they have been brought to the country under contract, for the law against the importation of working people is not altogether effective. It is constantly broken. Only recently a prominent public man, who is seeking new political honors, imported some of his servants. Before the law was passed the importation of working people by corporations and individual employers was very common. It was a real evil that the law was directed against. Its exaggerated application to the case of a head gardener and a clergyman does not change the fact that there was an evil to be remedied. It was not only the native American working-man and the adopted citizen already here and in the open field of competition who were injured by imported labor. The people who were brought to the country were, and are, deceived and imposed upon. There is a familiar illustration of the methods adopted by the importers in connection with a New England textile mill. The matter came before the State Department through the representations of the Swedish *Chargé d'Affaires*. Swedes had been imported to work in the factory. Not only their passage-money, but the cost of the furniture of their houses and of their food and clothes for the first month, were advanced to them by the corporation, which was at least indirectly interested in the store from which the immigrants were compelled to purchase their furniture, clothing, and provisions. The Swedes thus came to be in debt to the corporation. When the working-men had been in this country for a short time they learned that the wages which their contract called for were lower than the market rates, and they naturally sought to better their condition and to procure the compensation which their work was worth. They found employment in a neighboring State, but on the eve of their departure they were arrested under the Absconding Debtor's Law, and thus found themselves in the power of their employers.

In the mean time many devices had been resorted to for the purpose of keeping the men in debt to the corporation. The mill was even shut down, so that wages might stop and the consumption of goods bought at the store might fasten the chains that bound these slaves to their bondmasters. This story is indicative of a state of affairs which has obtained in many large manufacturing and mining centres. Pennsylvania is full of imported foreigners, and the factory towns of New England are not ignorant of them. These people come to a life of toil and cheap wages, and while they doubtless increase the product of the country, that increment, whatever it may be, does not meet the increase of the number of consumers. The share of the product which in the shape of wages goes to each working-man is materially lessened by the imported laborers, for wherever industries are well protected, from the point of view of the advocates of the present tariff system, there is no healthful competition. A high rate of duty enables and tempts its beneficiaries to form combinations and trusts to control the market, from which the government has excluded foreigners, and these trusts, keeping down as they do the number of establishments which employ labor, make wages low. Free competition means high wages and low prices.

The effect of the importation of labor into this country may be best illustrated by the statistics of wages. The people whom Mr. ROGERS has given us in his picture are going to a coal village. Whether they are to work in an anthracite or bituminous mine they will be for some time "outside laborers." They have been promised, if they have not been deceived as to the market rates, from $1 40 to $1 60 a day. They will become inside workers after a while, and their nominal pay will be about $1 75. Their lives will be constantly in danger. The miners whose helpers they will be are naturally hostile to them. They will not warn them against the impending cave in, or of the necessity of always keeping a lookout for the falling of pieces of rock and coal that have been loosened by pick or blast. Full pay for full time is not very large compensation for the risk that is run. But when a year has passed these imported working-men will find that by reason of loss of time they have not received what was promised to them; that outside laborers have had from 60 to 80 cents a day, instead of $1 40 or $1 60, while inside laborers have received only about $1 a day. In the anthracite regions the miner who works on contract is expected to make at least $2 70 a day; his actual earnings are about $1 48. The theoretical wages of other miners are $2; the actual wages are $1 17. Boys who are promised 65 cents receive about 34 cents. Drivers and runners expect $1 43, and get 89 cents. Firemen, whose nominal pay is $1 58, receive 95 cents. Engineers are paid at the rate of $1 88, and earn $1 48. Blacksmiths receive $1 20, instead of $1 91, and so the story runs. Rates of wages throw very little light on actual earnings; and the story may be repeated for the bituminous region. The following table will show the difference between actual and theoretical wages in western Pennsylvania:

| Employment. | Theoretical. | Actual. |
|---|---|---|
| Miners, per diem | $2 00 | $1 20 |
| Mule drivers | 1 75 | 1 04 |
| Laborers, outside | 1 60 | 93 |
| " inside | 1 75 | 1 05 |
| Blacksmiths | 2 00 | 1 20 |
| Coke-oven chargers | 1 70 | 1 00 |
| " drawers | 1 65 | 94 |
| Mine boss | 2 80 | 2 00 |
| Carpenters | 1 75 | 1 20 |
| Clerks | 2 25 | 1 67 |
| Boys | 65 | 38 |

These were the rates of wages which, according to the report of the Pennsylvania Bureau of Industrial Statistics, prevailed in 1884. The rates may have slightly changed, but the relations between actual and theoretical wages have not changed. The miners continue to lose about the same number of days in the year that they did when the report was made.

Compared with the wages paid at the same time in English mines, the earnings of American miners do not appear to be so much greater than those of the "white slaves of England." Bituminous miners in this country receive about $7 10 a week. The "heavers" of England receive $6 72, and the "deputies" $6 60. This is a difference of 38 and 50 cents in favor of the American; but the English miner does not pay rent, nor for his coal, except 12 cents a fortnight for loading the coal. The average rent for a hut in the Pennsylvania mines is $5 a month, so that the English miner is really in receipt of higher wages than the American. Free rent and free coal are supplied to all who work at the English mines, so that even the American laborers who are paid $1 53 a week more than the English laborers are not so well off as the "white slaves."

Some of the foreigners who have been brought to this country are to be found in the iron mines and the iron and steel mills. The course of wages in these industries has been steadily downward. In 1873 puddlers were receiving $4 00 a day; in 1883 they were paid $2 72. The wages of their helpers decreased during the same period from $2 25 to $1 45, and this is the story that is told throughout the region where the working-men should have received the most benefits from the protective tariff, and where there has been no free-trade in any commodity except labor.

Another table will show the difference between actual and theoretical daily wages paid in the iron mines of Pennsylvania. It is as follows:

| Employment. | Theoretical. | Actual. |
|---|---|---|
| Miners | $1 25 | $ 75 |
| Miners' helpers | 1 17 | 70 |
| Engineers | 1 30 | 78 |
| Firemen | 1 75 | 1 55 |
| Blacksmiths | 1 40 | 84 |
| Laborers | 95 | 57 |
| Boys | 50 | 30 |

This is a terrible state of affairs. Speaking of it, the Chief of the Bureau of Industrial Statistics of the State says: "This allows scarcely sufficient wages per week for the run of the year to maintain a single individual. How those wage-workers having families to maintain can accomplish that difficult task is a problem in social economics that can be solved only by those who have been in similar circumstances. Many miners wear belts instead of suspenders to support the weight of their pantaloons, and one of these, in reply to the question asked him relative to his ability to buy food, said, 'Lord bless you! we don't always eat when we are hungry; *we just tighten our belts*.'"

The attempt has been made in these papers to show that the rates of wages in the mines of Pennsylvania do not indicate the share which the working-men receive of the products of the mines; that short time and exactions made the actual wages very much less than theoretical wages. It has also been shown that wages are actually very low. It is not true that the general state of affairs obtains at every mine and mill in the State. There are employers who pay higher wages than their neighbors, and who keep their works running in order that they may retain skilled workmen. As a rule, these employers demonstrate MR. ATKINSON's proposition that high wages mean cheap prices. There is a blast-furnace near Allentown where wages are higher, work more constant, and the social and domestic atmosphere more wholesome than are usual in Pennsylvania. The furnace is seldom closed. It has more than once been in operation when all the furnaces of the neighborhood were cold. There is always a market for its pig-iron, and its product is about the only iron of the anthracite region which has not been materially injured by competition with the cheap ores and coal of Alabama. It can be sold for less because, although the wages paid are comparatively high, the cost of labor to the ton of pig is lower than that paid at other furnaces. There has for years been a constant stream of cheap foreign labor pouring into the mining counties of Pennsylvania, to the degradation of the working population, and to the serious detriment of the morals of the community. The employers who are seeking to increase their gains by the artificial aid of the law do not distribute the bounties that are paid to them among all who produce the commodities in which they deal. The spirit which moves them to demand taxation in their behalf, also so greatly stimulates their cupidity as to induce them to procure as cheap labor as may be had. In order that they may increase the supply of labor their agents have ransacked the globe for men who are content with a pittance. The trade in human beings has been somewhat checked by the law against importing working people under contract, but it is a bad state of things which makes such a law necessary. High prices and cheap labor accompany each other, and cheap labor is invariably the rule wherever the law guards the employer against the necessity of making his product as perfect as it may be.

H. L. NELSON.

## THE NEW CHINESE COMMISSIONERS.

ON page 556 will be found portraits of FU WUN LUNG and KU HOW KWON, the Chinese Commissioners who have lately arrived at San Francisco to report upon the industries and the development of mechanical science in this country. Both are Mandarins of high degree and lofty rank in their own country. FU has been for several years a member of the Board of Punishments. KU has filled an office analogous to that of our Assistant Secretary of War. Both have passed examinations in Chinese letters which, according to Chinese usage, entitle them to high station in the public service. They form part of a body of twelve Commissioners who left China last spring with orders to report to the Tsung Li Yamen on the practical results of Christian civilization as exemplified in the leading Christian countries of the world. Ten of the Commissioners divided Europe amongst them; the other two came to this country. Their instructions are to see everything, and to report fully and truthfully on everything within two years.

FU and KU have not been idle since they reached San Francisco. They have inspected the new cruiser *Charleston*, at the Union Iron-Works, from stem to keelson. They spent some time examining the railroads which converge at San Francisco and Oakland, noting especially the cost of each engine and each kind of rail. They studied the cable-car system with thoroughness, and appeared to understand its working, its advantages, and its drawbacks. They spent a day at the woollen factory, and took the greatest interest in the various devices by which patterns are formed and labor saved. Another day was devoted to the shoe factories, where the new machinery which now supersedes hand labor elicited their admiration.

From San Francisco they go to Virginia City, where they will make an exhaustive examination of the mines on the Comstock Lode, and of the processes in use for extracting and reducing ore. This part of their duty will be the more important as it is known that one or two hundred miles back of the sea-shore a range of mountains runs from Shang-Tung province, in China, all the way to Che-Fu, and carries metalliferous quartz resembling that of Mount Davidson. Until within five hundred years mines were worked on this range, and silver and gold produced in considerable quantities; but when a certain depth was reached the Chinese superstition of the underground devil caused a suspension of operations. Disease broke out in the neighborhood, and the ignorant peasantry believed that it was caused by the malevolence of spirits whom the miners had disturbed in their subterranean abodes; so the government had to stop mining, and it is only within three or four years that it has been resumed. When OU YUNG MING was Consul-General of China at San Francisco he satisfied himself that China's interest required the reopening of these old mines, and he had influence enough with his government to induce it to purchase a stamp-mill at San Francisco, and to engage an old Comstock miner to go to China to work it. The new Commissioners will learn enough about mining on the Comstock to warrant their recommending more extensive operations at other points on the vein.

But perhaps the most important branch of the Commissioners' studies will be on the Mississippi River. They are ordered to make an exhaustive survey of the system of levees by which the lower Mississippi is restrained from overflowing its banks, with a view to their application to the Hoang-Ho and other Chinese rivers which have been in the habit of flooding the valleys through which they run, and spreading devastation and famine. There has hardly been a year in the last ten that the government at Peking has not been called upon to relieve distress in some province or another in consequence of river overflows. And the distress has not been limited to loss of property and personal inconvenience: it has involved the loss of millions of lives from drowning or subsequent starvation. Years ago the Chinese were told that nothing short of a system of levees for the rivers which flow through the loess prairie would cure the evil, and it was pointed out that the levees must be constructed in accordance with the rules of science as put in practice in Holland and in this country. For years the Chinese rejected with scorn the idea that they could learn anything from outside barbarians. This Commission is the first evidence that wiser councils at last prevail.

No one who has not studied the subject minutely can form any idea of the intensity with which Chinese exclusiveness has prevailed until quite lately. The opening of the five ports in 1842 rather tended to isolate than to assimilate the foreigner. It was not till the treaty of Tien-tsin, in 1858, that China really accepted him as one worthy to inhabit the flowery kingdom, under precise conditions and with severe restrictions. From the time that treaty was concluded to the present day a struggle has been going on in China between a small band of liberals, at whose head has stood the Viceroy of Chih-li, LI HUNG CHANG, on the one hand, and the great body of the people, with the Tory nobility at their head, on the other. LI HUNG CHANG is the man whom GORDON chased round the walls of Nankin, revolver in hand, to blow his brains out for breaking his word by executing the captured leaders of the Taeping rebellion; but for all that, LI is a marvellously sagacious, far-seeing, and progressive statesman. For many years he was in a hopeless minority. On one occasion the censors reported that he was a public enemy deserving of punishment, and if he had not marched on the censors like a whirlwind, and shaken the timid souls of the counsellors of state, his career would have ended ignominiously. As it was, it was the censors who were exiled to Mantchooria by an Empress who, whatever faults she may have had as a woman, was a prodigiously wise ruler.

Two pieces of extraordinary good luck have lately befallen LI. In 1883 his chief rival, General TSO, died. He was the greatest soldier that China had—a brave, resolute, stiff-necked old Tory, who believed that foreigners were devils, and that a man who talked of improvements should be taken out and beheaded. On his death-bed old TSO drew a political testament, in which he recanted his Tory belief, and declared to his imperial mistress that unless China adopted the improvements of Christian nations, especially railroads, the empire would inevitably disintegrate. This was a bombshell in the conservative camp. Chinamen of distinction, who had accepted anti-foreign prejudices without question, now began to inquire whether they could have been mistaken. It was a bitter pill to swallow; but even in the court at Peking members of the Six Boards, for the first time in their lives, began to study the question whether China might not have something to learn. The second piece of luck which befell LI was the return of the Marquis TSENG from Europe. The Marquis had been Minister to London, Paris, and Berlin for many years. He had acquired such command of our tongue that when he left he delivered an address at a farewell banquet which might have been spoken by a highly educated Englishman. He was familiar with the recent march of science, engineering, and industry. He went back to China firmly bent on bringing it into line with the most advanced nations; and between him and LI a close alliance was formed. The duumviri took in a third partner in the person of the Emperor's uncle, Prince KUNG, or the Seventh Prince. He is a large coal miner, and has become quite wealthy from the product of his collieries, which are worked under the superintendence of Englishmen.

It is to the influence of these advanced thinkers that the recent new departure of the Chinese is due. They propose to try to educate their people, and the twelve Commissioners have been sent abroad to collect material for the new national school. It is difficult for persons who have not been in China to realize the degree to which exclusiveness and contempt of the foreigner have permeated the Chinese mind. MR. BROMLEY, late Consul at Trenton, stated lately that he had met at Peking a distinguished Chinese general who had commanded an army in West Central China for twenty years. MR. BROMLEY was the first man of European descent he had ever seen, and he was rather surprised that our Consul did not kneel and beat the ground with his forehead when they met. MR. JOHN RUSSELL YOUNG, who was Minister to China for some years, tells amusing anecdotes of Chinese gentlemen who secretly accepted invitations to American or European balls, peeped at the dancing through cracks, and ran away by the back door, fearful of being seen. The Greek idea that people born outside of Greece were barbarians is outdone by the Chinese.

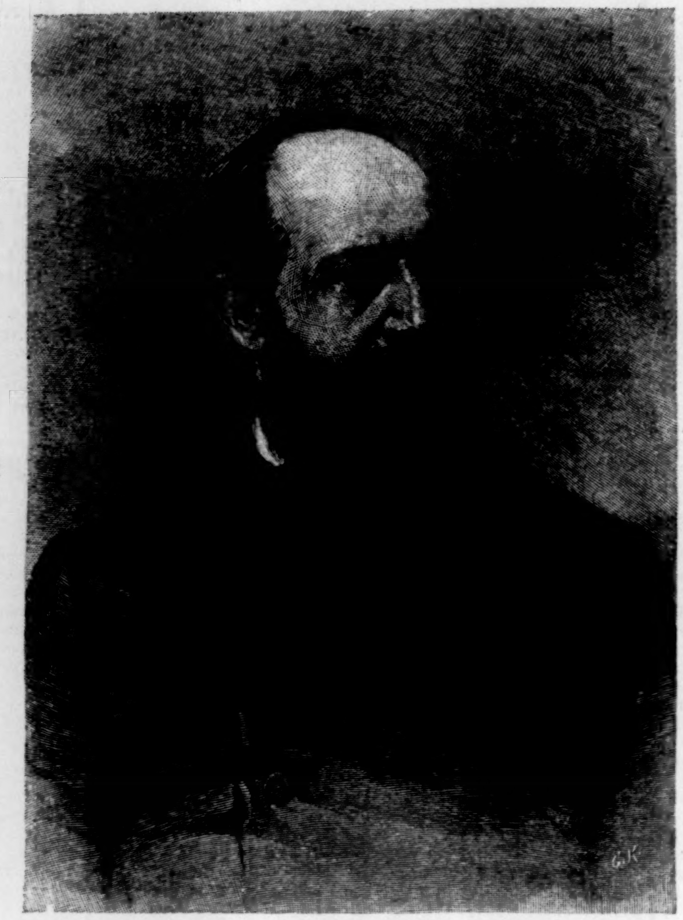
This exclusiveness may in part explain, if it cannot excuse, the barbarous provincialism of the California hoodlum toward the Chinese race. Not only will the 100,000 Chinamen in California not merge their nationality in ours, they will not accept our dress, or our mode of living, or our ideas on any point whatsoever. They desire to remain Chinamen to the end of the chapter. The Minister at Washington, YEN HOON, does not speak a word of English, and prides himself on it. The Consul-General at San Francisco is equally ignorant, and likewise glories in his illiteracy. A few gentlemen connected with the embassy and consulate do speak our tongue; but by way of cutting them off from American society, they have lately been forbidden to appear in public in American clothes. All this springs from an honest conviction that the Chinese are a superior race, and all others are inferiors. It is in part to dispel this delusion that the astute rulers of China have sent this new Commission on its travels.

## THE SOUTHERN WATERMELON TRADE.

ALTHOUGH watermelons are grown for the market in nearly all parts of the South, three States—Georgia, South Carolina, and Florida—monopolize the Northern wholesale trade in the luscious fruit. Georgia is the principal melon State, the greatest number of melons coming from Quitman, Millen, Lawtonville, Perkins Junction, Valdosta, Albany, and Boston. Shipments are made from a town called Wildwood, in the northern part of Florida, near the Georgia line. The melon interest in this State is not developed to any extent, owing to the fact that the few melon centres are at a great distance from New York, the loss in handling and the time the fruit is kept on the road rendering it unfit for the shipping trade. Within the last few years South Carolina has given great attention to the culture of melons, the principal points of shipment in this State being Williston, Blackville, Rushville, and Elko. Late in the season New Jersey keeps up the supply. The accompanying illustration in this week's paper represents the loading of the cars at Atlanta, Georgia, to which point the fruit has been brought from the melon-growing districts.

The melon season begins on the 1st of June and ends on the 1st of October; the Florida fruit is the first to arrive, while New Jersey supplies the New York market after the 15th of August. In former times the plain dark green melon, commonly called the "Niggerhead," was shipped from the South; at the present time almost the only variety sent is what is called the "Kolbs Gem," the green and white striped melon named after the man who first brought it to a high state of cultivation. This variety of melon is grown in the South especially for shipment to Northern markets. Dealers say that for this purpose it has no equal. The fruit is nearly round, the rind dark green, somewhat

KU HOW QUON, CHINESE COMMISSIONER TO THE UNITED STATES.—[See Page 555.]



THE LATE REV. EDWARD P. ROE.—[See Page 558.]

FU WUN LUNG, CHINESE COMMISSIONER TO THE UNITED STATES.—[See Page 555.]

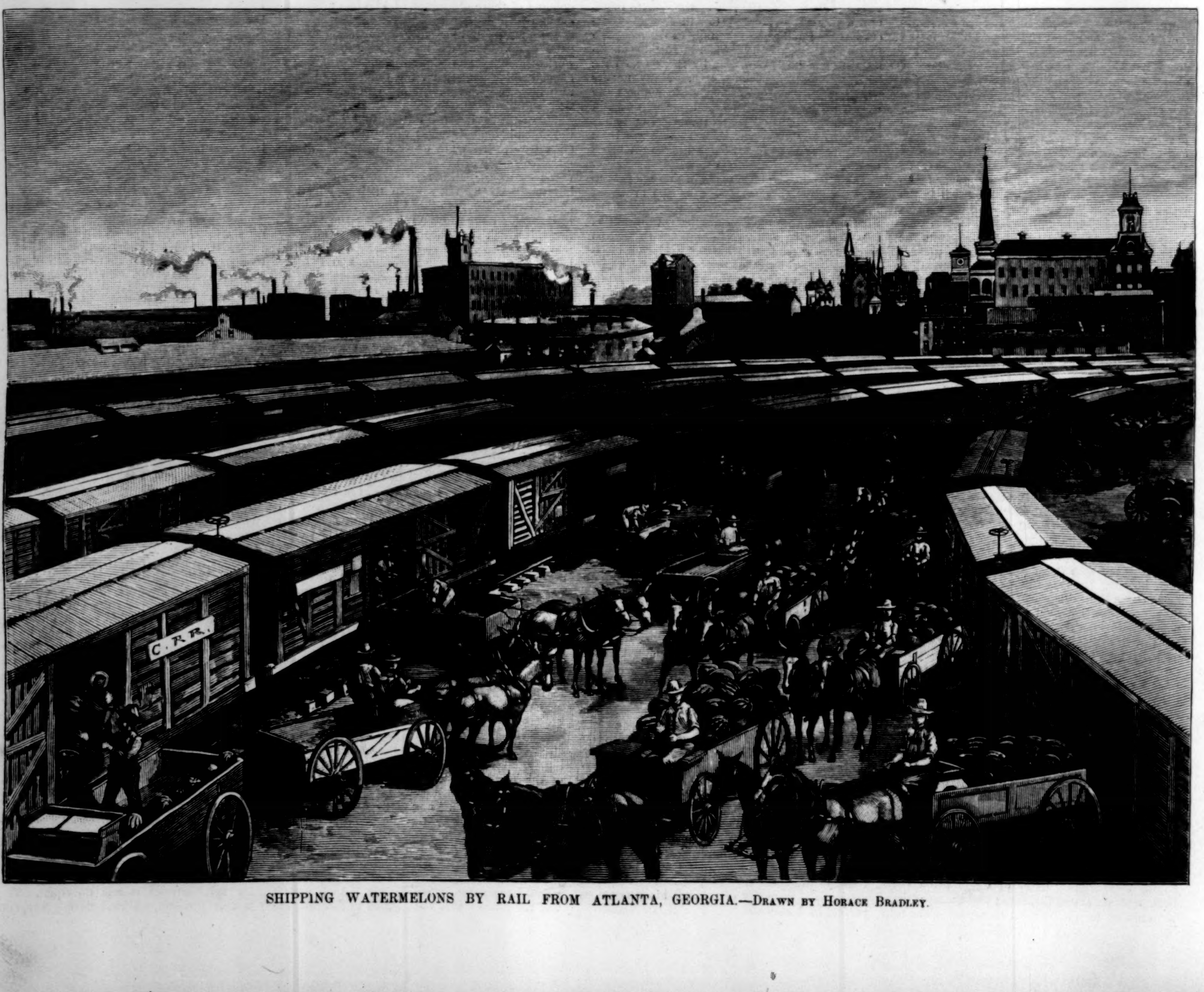
marbled with lighter shades. There are no less than twenty kinds of watermelon seeds sold in the New York seed stores. There is the "Volga," a fine-flavored melon which came originally from Russia; the "Georgian Rattlesnake or Gypsy," large, oblong, and striped, and the "Mammoth Iron-clad," which is very much like it; the "Ice-Cream," a medium-sized melon with white seeds; the "Cuban Green," which, it is claimed, sometimes weighs eighty pounds; the "Black Spanish," a fruit of medium size, almost round; the "Scaly Bark," which has a very thin rind, yet so tough and strong that it will bear any amount of handling before bursting or cracking open; the "California," the "Orange," etc. The "Green and Gold" watermelon is a peculiar variety. The flesh, instead of being red, is a golden-orange color, free from any tinge of white or other color even immediately around the seeds. The flesh is granular in appearance, juicy, and sweet.

Dealers say that it would be almost impossible to teach a person how to pick out a good melon. Such knowledge can only be acquired by experience, and the ability to select the choicest fruit would seem to be largely a matter of intuition. The quality is determined principally by weight and color. It is safe to say that melons arriving from the South after the 25th of June are ripe, and of course the heavier they are the better will be the flavor. A large seed-house in New York annually offers money prizes for the best watermelons grown from seed purchased at their establishment. The prizes are respectively $25, $15, and $10, and in coming to a decision as to what constitutes the best specimen the judges are guided by closeness to true type, size, smoothness, weight, and solidity. The best fruit, it is claimed, comes from Lawtonville and Perkins Junction, Georgia, and a melon to be good ought to weigh at least twenty-five pounds.

About twenty-five commission houses in New York are engaged in the Southern melon trade. The importance of this commercial enterprise can be estimated by an approximate statement of the number of melons received from the South during the summer season. There are received from Georgia from 400 to 500 car-loads; from Florida, 100; South Carolina, between 300 and 400; Maryland, from 100 to 150; and New Jersey, between 200 and 300 car-loads. Two years ago the railroad companies allowed the shipper to pack as many melons as he could get into a car. At the present time, on the Georgia Southern Railroad, over which much of the fruit is carried, the limit of weight for each car is fixed at 20,000 pounds, which would represent from 800 to 1200 sound melons. On the Georgia Central Railroad 24,000 pounds is the limit. The charge for freight from Rushville and Elko, South Carolina, the two principal melon fields, is from $102 to $125 per car. The charge for freight averages about twelve and a half cents apiece per melon, or from two-thirds to three-quarters the actual value of the fruit as it is sold in the New York market.

During this season the large commission merchants in New York dealing in watermelons have made a protest against the Savannah Steam-ship Company's new method of charging freight. Heretofore when melons arrived in New York on the Savannah Seam-ship Company's dock, consigned to a commission house, the dealer, after an examination, would decide whether they were merchantable before he would take them; if, in his judgment, they would not bring the cost of the freight, he would report the fact to the company, who would allow him to sell them for what he could get. This system has been changed, and now when complaint is made that the fruit will not bring the freight charges, the company disposes of it to parties outside the regular trade at such prices as it can get. In this way the profits of the regular commission houses are cut down, and they are denied what they claim is their prior right to dispose of the melons, whether they bring the price of the freight or not. A score of leading commission houses have recently sent a circular on this subject to the growers in the South. They claim that New York, under the present system of high freight charges and the innovation just alluded to, will soon cease to have any watermelon trade. They urge consignees not to ship anything that will not, in their judgment, bring a fair value. "To do otherwise would be to benefit the steam-ship and railroad companies, and those employed by them to sell the melons, whose only interest is to have as many orders refused as possible, and they demand that each car, instead of carrying from 20,000 to 24,000 pounds, shall carry from 30,000 to 34,000 pounds.

George J. Manson.




SHIPPING WATERMELONS BY RAIL FROM ATLANTA, GEORGIA.—Drawn by Horace Bradley.

IMMIGRANTS WAITING TO BE DISTRIBUTED IN THE COAL REGIONS OF PENNSYLVANIA.—Drawn from Nature by W. A. Rogers.—[See Page 555.]

## SALLY UNDER THE APPLE-TREE.

OH! the jolly old apple-tree,
With Sally standing under,
Holding her little apron wide,
To catch the rosy plunder!
The while Jack shakes with might and main
Till apples, ripe and mellow,
Come pouring down, a ruddy rain,
For Jack's a sturdy fellow.
Then Sally lifts her flower-like face,
Framed in a pink sun-bonnet,
And pays him in a fragrant kiss
With all the bloom upon it.
Oh! Sally under the apple-tree,
My little darling pet!
The sweetness of that kiss you gave
My memory treasures yet.

But years have come and years have gone,
And all the world grows older,
And while our pockets fill apace,
Our empty hearts grow colder.
I think of all the years have brought,
The joys I've bought and paid for
(For men must always foot the bills—
What else, pray, were they made for?)—
A palace on Fifth Avenue,
A stylish clipper yacht,
A hunting stud, a Tally-ho,
The winning colt—what not?
A wife and daughters à la mode
(Three dolls, well stuffed with straw),
Two lazy, dissipated sons,
One ditto son-in-law.
A lonely heart, a loveless home,
A world of toil and trouble,
And weary days, and sleepless nights,
And all for what?—A bubble!

So, looking back with longing eyes
To days of sweet unreason,
When all our wealth was youth and love,
And apples—while in season—
How I despise the sordid pelf
That brings me naught but sorrow!
For one sweet kiss from Sally's lips
I'd give it all to-morrow—
All to be young again, Sally,
Beginning life anew,
Shaking the tree for all I'm worth
To win a kiss from you!

B. J.

## THE LATE EDWARD P. ROE.

THE Rev. EDWARD PAYSON ROE, the popular novelist, was suddenly stricken with neuralgia of the heart on Thursday evening, July 19th, and died immediately, at his home at Cornwall-on-the-Hudson, New York. He was born at New Windsor, New York, March 7, 1838. After graduating from Williams College, he entered the Theological Seminary at Auburn, and studied for the Presbyterian ministry. He served as chaplain of the Second New York Regiment in 1862, and took part in the raid upon Richmond. Later he was appointed by President LINCOLN chaplain of one of the hospitals at Fortress Monroe. At the close of the war he became pastor of the Presbyterian church at Highland Falls, New York, one mile north of West Point. In 1874 Mr. ROE removed to his late home, and engaged in the culture of small fruits and plants. He became a recognized authority on such matters, and a series of articles, entitled "The Home Acre," which he contributed to HARPER'S MAGAZINE in 1886 and 1887, attracted much attention. He was an enthusiastic type of a "gentleman farmer," but his work, although not particularly remunerative, was eminently successful. It was in this healthy country retreat that most of his books were written. Previous to 1872 he had no intention of entering the literary field, but the burning of Chicago so impressed him that his first story, to use his own words, "grew as naturally as the plants on his farm."

As a novelist Mr. ROE made his mark, and to-day is known all over the country. The annual income from his books and writings in later years is said to have been in the neighborhood of $20,000. *Barriers Burned Away* and *The Opening of a Chestnut Burr* are among his earlier and most popular novels. The sale of these books has been astonishing, and they have been translated into German and French, and the aggregate sale of all his works amounted to about 750,000 copies. Among his other works are *Nature's Serial Story*, which first appeared in HARPER'S MAGAZINE; *Culture of Small Fruits, Without a Home, He fell in Love with his Wife*, etc., etc. Although not distinguished by any great constructive skill, his books have always had a distinct originality and naturalness, and the familiarity of the phases of American life which he has portrayed have added to their general popularity. By his friends and acquaintances Mr. ROE was much beloved, and his genial manner attracted all who came in contact with him. Only a few weeks ago his fellow-members of the Authors' Club were entertained at his beautiful home on the Hudson. Two years ago he met with severe financial loss by endorsing a note for his brother for a large amount, which he was afterward obliged to pay. This crippled his resources greatly, and it was necessary for him to dispose of some copyrights to meet the obligation.

To read over the list of books published by Mr. ROE gives the idea that he was a particularly prolific writer, but he has written just one book a year since he began in 1872. He was extremely methodical in his labors, and in the early morning would devote his time to his garden until ten or eleven o'clock. From lunch he would write until dinner. After the idea of a story occurred to him, it would practically work itself out, as he said of *Barriers Burned Away*. He would devote a great deal of his time to studying the people he intended to embody in his book, and for that purpose visited humble homes, great and small stores, police courts, and every place where he could gather faithful pictures. Then, after writing out the chapters of his novels on slips of paper, he would have them copied on the type-writer, the original slips being almost illegible, owing to the corrections which he made. Even after the book was in the publisher's hands he would give it a final reading, making changes in the proof before printing. Much of his phenomenal success was owing, no doubt, to his careful preparation, for his books read smoothly and evenly, and appealed to the sympathies of the reader. Mr. ROE was a domestic man, and although the outside world was ready to receive him with honor, he preferred his home, and the last year of his life was spent there almost entirely. He leaves a wife and five children.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When she was a Child, she cried for Castoria,
When she became Miss, she clung to Castoria,
When she had Children, she gave them Castoria.—[*Adv.*]

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THE GREAT PAIN RELIEVER,
For Internal and External Pains, Rheumatism, Pain in Stomach, Bowels, or Side, Colic, Diarrhœa, Colds, Sprains, Burns, Scalds, Cramps, and Bruises, 25c.—[*Adv.*]

ADVICE TO MOTHERS.

MRS. WINSLOW'S SOOTHING SYRUP should always be used for children teething. It soothes the child, softens the gums, allays all pain, cures wind colic, and is the best remedy for diarrhœa. 25c. a bottle.—[*Adv.*]

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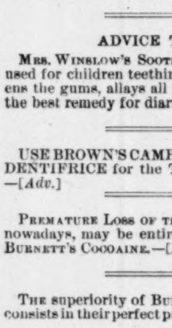

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## A PROSPEROUS BUSINESS MAN.

HON. H. H. WARNER, whose portrait is given herewith, is a direct descendant of famous Revolutionary stock. His family originated in Kent, Essex, and Leicester, England, and points with pride to John Warner, Bishop of Rochester, England, in the seventeenth century. Col. Seth Warner, of Revolutionary War fame, was first cousin of Mr. Warner's grandfather, who was Captain Seth Warner, a valiant man in the war of 1812. No less than eight prominent physicians have adorned the Warner family since 1650. The line of which H. H. Warner is a descendant settled in ancient Woodbury, Conn.

H. H. Warner was born in Van Buren, Onondaga Co., N. Y., Jan. 19th, 1842. He was educated at Dr. Wright's famous academy at Elbridge, N. Y. When a young man he followed Horace Greeley's advice, went West and struck out for himself, after having learned a trade at Memphis, Onondaga Co., N. Y. After spending five years in Michigan, in 1870 he returned to New York state, and settled in Rochester, having that year secured the general agency of the Mosler, Bahman, & Co. fire and burglar proof safe, of Cincinnati, O. For ten years he was the most successful safe dealer in the United States, and amassed a fortune.

In 1879, being prostrated by a severe disease, from which the doctors gave no hope of recovery, he began the use of what is now known as the famous Warner's safe cure. It restored him to health, and he determined that he would spread its merits before the world, that others suffering in a like manner might likewise be cured. The business grew upon his hands so rapidly that he was obliged to surrender all other enterprises and give his attention to Warner's Safe Remedies. This business is reputed to be the largest proprietary medicine business in the world. Besides the Rochester warehouse and laboratory, which is the completest structure of the kind in the country, there are eight other branch houses and laboratories, viz.: Toronto, Ont.; London, Eng.; Frankfurt a. M., Germany; Prague, Austria; Rangoon, Burmah; Bombay, India; Sydney, N. S. W.; Melbourne, Australia.

In 1879 Mr. Warner gave Dr. Swift, the famous comet-finder, assurance that if he would get a suitable telescope he would erect a building proper for an observatory. The building was completed in 1883. It is of Lockport white sandstone, rough ashlar, and is finished throughout with the rarest native hardwoods. It is furnished with all the appliances of a first-class observatory, and is the finest private astronomical observatory in the world. The telescope weighs, with mountings, about three tons, and cost $13,000. Since 1879 Mr. Warner has almost continually offered astronomical prizes, having made awards to the extent of about $5000. It is the only observatory in the world that is open to the public. In 1882 Mr. Warner, in recognition of his distinguished patronage of astronomical science, was elected a member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

In 1885 H. H. Warner & Co. put upon the market Warner's Safe Yeast, which in two years has attained an extraordinary popularity and sale. In 1887 H. H. Warner & Co. put upon the market what they call Warner's Log Cabin Remedies, designed to reach the diseases for which Warner's Safe Remedies are not specifics.

The Safe Remedies building is located on North St. Paul St., and has a capacity of four and a quarter acres of flooring, every square inch of which is used in the prosecution of his world-wide business. Indeed, the capacity of the building is not enough to accommodate the growing business, and an annex building will be erected. The present building is fireproof and constructed of Philadelphia pressed brick and iron.

Mr. Warner is personally a very popular man, full of energy and good works. He is very fond of out-door exercise, and spends his summer vacations on the chain of great lakes, having one of the completest and most comfortable steam yachts that floats on inland waters. He was one of the first Americans to comprehend the beauties and attractiveness of the Thousand Islands as a summer resort.

Mr. Warner is about six feet one inch high, weighs 250 pounds, is of light complexion, with blue eyes and dark-brown hair. He has great physical vigor. He wins success by deserving it. He is one of the hardest-working men in the country. He is also one of the most thoroughgoing citizens and public-spirited business men of Rochester.

When the Rochester Chamber of Commerce was organized in 1887, H. H. Warner, although still a young man, was unanimously elected President of the Chamber, a compliment that his friends were eager to pay him, and that the city and all who know him confess was more than well deserved. On the 10th of January he gave the Chamber of Commerce a complimentary banquet at Powers Hotel, which was pronounced by Senator Warner Miller, a kinsman of the President, the finest looking company of business men, the happiest and most judiciously managed banquet, and most successful affair of the kind that he ever attended. He was delegate to Chicago in 1884 and 1888.

Mr. Warner believes that our obligations to our own people are greater than our obligations to the working-men abroad, and when the proposed Commercial Union with Canada was discussed in the City Hall of Rochester, by Hon. Benjamin Butterworth of Ohio, and Mr. Wiman of Canada, Mr. Warner combated the propositions advanced with great originality, vigor, and convincing statements, he holding that to have commercial union with Canada would be equal to opening the back door for the entrance of British manufacturers into the United States.

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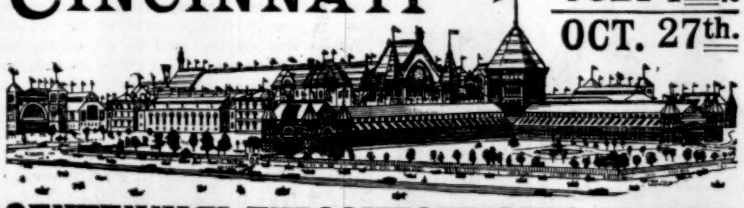

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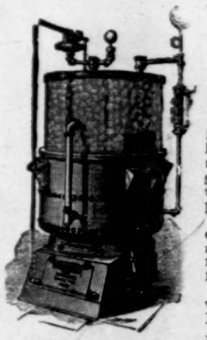

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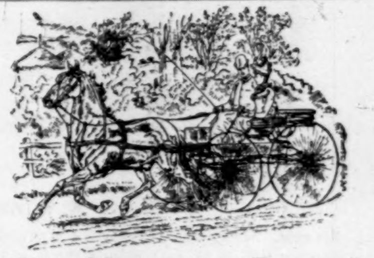

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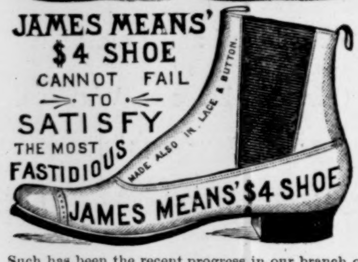




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# THE CITY OF ROCHESTER AND THE GENESEE VALLEY.

By MRS. JANE MARSH PARKER.

Two hundred and fifty years ago (1638) the State of New York west of the Hudson River was called "The Unknown Land" by the Dutch traders at Albany. Frenchman and Englishman were each striving to gain possession of the Long House of the Iroquois. The Senecas of the Five Nations guarded the Western Door, and sometimes English rum and sometimes French "brandie" controlled trade at the important post at the mouth of the "Little Seneca" River and Irondequoit Bay a few miles to the eastward. It is a long story how the Englishman finally became possessor of the territory, and how the Iroquois under Joseph Brant took up the tomahawk for the King, and found themselves after the war of the Revolution left out of the treaty of peace, and their lands in western New York forfeited to the government of the United States, which not only permitted them to retain their lands, but protected them in that possession, until Brant and the Butlers and border massacres were followed by the memorable raid of General Sullivan, who could report to General Washington after the invasion of the Genesee Valley (1779): "We have not left a single settlement or field of corn in the country of the Five Nations. Nor is there even the appearance of an Indian on this side of Fort Niagara."

And yet Sullivan's raid did not open the Genesee country to the white man. The victorious little army returned to the East with glowing descriptions of the beautiful valley. We read in the journals of Sullivan's men: "It is a wonderful country. The grass of the plains grows as high as a man's head." "The Genesee falls into Lake Ontario,. . . .navigable for battaud,. . . .easy navigation all the way to Montreal." "The finest grass I ever saw in a wild country—blue-grass and clover. . . . .Dears and wild turkeys abound." "I ate part of a fried rattlesnake to-day which would have tasted very well if it had not been snake." Great was the turning of longing eyes to the Genesee country. Those were notably hard times. The soldiers of the Revolution had been discharged without pay. Taxation was heavy, and the laws against debtors severe. There was no commerce, and the fisheries had been abandoned. Sons of patriots, and patriots as well, were desperately seeking some outlet from the general financial depression—an opportunity to make a fresh start in life. So it was something better than the "flood-wood" of old Eastern settlements that was ready to emigrate to the Genesee country when good title to land could be obtained.

The story of the securing of that title is a long one, and needs no repetition here. The Senecas were the owners of the lands in western New York, and the purchase of land from an Indian was illegal until after Massachusetts and New York had so settled certain complications relating to their royal grants that Massachusetts sold to Phelps and Gorham her lands in western New York upon condition that Phelps and Gorham would extinguish the Indian title, which they did at the Treaty of Buffalo Creek, July, 1788, giving the Senecas five thousand dollars and a perpetual annuity of five hundred dollars for about 2,600,000 acres. The Senecas went to that treaty in a bad temper, declaring they would never consent to sell a single foot of their possessions *west* of the Genesee. "But," said the white man, "I must have a mill at the ford by the falls. That mill will have to be on the west side. Of what use is all this land to the white man without a mill? The mill will be of as great use to the red face as to the pale face." Milling by stump mortar was something the Indian would like to see abolished. It is probable that the squaws, who were the millers, and had a voice in the council of the Iroquois, decided the matter. The pale-face should have the mill-yard west of the Genesee, and the staking out what was required was left to him, of course. What did the red face know about the space needed for a mill-yard? So the pale-face staked out what he must have—twelve miles by twenty-five—a mill-yard reaching from Lake Ontario far up "the pleasant valley." And thereupon the first mill at the falls was built, a shanty 26 by 30, the starting-point of the "Flour City" of fifty years after, "famous for the largest flour mills in the world."

Ebenezer Allan's name stands first on the list of Rochester millers. "Indian" Allan, as he was called, although a white man, had an extended reputation in the Genesee country when Phelps and Gorham made their purchase. He was then living less than twenty miles south of the falls in a log-house he had built upon the three hundred acres of land given him by the Indians, over whom he ruled like a despot. They stole cattle from the border settlers for him, and drove them to his grass-lands, from which they were transferred to the British at Fort Niagara, with whom he was in constant communication as their agent with the Senecas. He had fought under the Butlers against Sullivan, and had skulked back from Fort Niagara to enjoy the advantages given to the white traders in the Genesee country. It would be hard to find a more disreputable record than that of Indian Allan—a life of brutal crimes and ungovernable lust. It would be interesting to know how such a man as Oliver Phelps was led to give Indian Allan one hundred acres of the mill lot upon the condition that he would straightway build a mill, and saw boards and grind wheat and corn for settlers.

The "raising" of that first mill at the Genesee Falls, the first step toward utilizing the 10,000 horse-power of the cataract, was upon a November day in 1789. Indian runners had been sent out by Allan, and every white man within twenty miles was bidden to the merrymaking—fourteen in all. A canoe-load of rum had "put in" at the mouth of the river a few days before, and Allan had secured it for the carousal. It was a memorable occasion, lasting two days. The framework of "the mill" was up; the white man had fulfilled his contract. The Indian went down to look at the mill, and was naturally somewhat perplexed. It was never a success as a mill, and its miller, during the few years he was occasionally found there, gave the place a bad reputation. In less than twenty years Allan's mill was a ruin in a wilderness noted for its rattlesnakes, swamp, and mosquitoes—"a place a man cannot gallop through on horseback without getting the fever and ague." The tide of settlers taking up land in the Phelps and Gorham purchase found nothing to attract them to the place. The completion of the Cayuga bridge in 1800 made crossing the Genesee at the "falls ford" more common for the westward-bound ox-teams; but the ford, except at low water, was dangerous, the first white man's grave in the locality being that of a pioneer carried over the falls, and buried by his more fortunate companions in their roar and spray. The need of a bridge at the falls, however, was not readily admitted, and the petition for one in 1809 provoked much derision in the Legislature. Did musk-rats and squirrels call for a bridge across the Genesee? In the year 1812 the bridge was completed, the troops returning from Fort Niagara having crossed on its sleepers, shortening their march to Canandaigua some twenty miles.

Colonel Nathaniel Rochester, the founder of the city that bears his name, was a representative pioneer of the Genesee country. In September of the year 1800 we find Colonel Rochester, in company with three other Maryland gentlemen of means, and associated with public affairs, setting out on horseback from Hagerstown, Maryland, for a visit to the much-talked-of Genesee country. Colonel Rochester believed that the best thing he could do for his sons would be to establish them in a non-slaveholding State, for all that he was the owner of slaves himself. He made large purchases of land in Livingston County near Dansville, and two years after invested in what the majority of his advisers thought a wild speculation—the Allan mill lot on the one-hundred-acre tract. In the year 1810 Colonel Rochester removed his family to Dansville, the northward march of his cavalcade attracting much attention. Not until 1818 did Colonel Rochester become a resident of Rochesterville, as the settlement was called for a while. In 1811 his village lots were advertised, with a map of the future village. His prices were exceptionally low, and terms easy. The lots were not in demand until the bridge was completed (1812), and then we find James Wadsworth writing to his land agent: "I wish that tract of one hundred acres could be bought of the Maryland gentleman. The bridge and mill seat render it very valuable indeed." "Persons coming here," wrote Hamlet Scrantem, the very first settler on Lot No. 1 at the Four Corners, "must inquire at Canandaigua for the new bridge at the Genesee Falls. Farms hereabouts are from five to fifteen dollars an acre; village lots, fifty dollars for a quarter-acre."

Not before 1814 did the lot-buyers at the Four Corners of the Genesee Falls settlement see enough in their investment to compensate them for what they suffered from chills and fevers, and until peace with Great Britain was declared, from fear of an invasion of Tories and savages from the lake. Late in the fall of 1813 every man of the settlement, "the brave 33," turned out in the dark and the storm one night, and marched through the mud knee-deep to the mouth of the river, where they met the British lion, or rather prevented Commodore Yeo from landing his troops, including some four hundred Indians. The growth of Rochester after its border danger was averted was simply marvellous—a growth largely owing to the fact that its settlers were mainly lot-buyers, and most respectable business and professional men. The settlement included several settlements, each with a name of its own, and the ambition to become the metropolis of the Genesee. These settlements were within two or three miles of the Four Corners, as the centre of Rochester is still called, and were soon absorbed by the rival they were slow to recognize as one. It was in 1814 that Mortimer F. the son of Abelard Reynolds, a pioneer lot-buyer, was born—the first white child on the one-hundred-acre tract. An idea of the city's growth in seventy-four years, from a swampy hamlet to a leading manufacturing town of 130,000, is given in the fact that the "first baby of Rochester" is to-day one of its most active citizens and generous benefactors—the founder of the library which bears his name. As that first baby stands head and shoulders above ordinary men, more erect and vigorous to-day than many of his juniors in years, it is not surprising that his twin, the city, is all her sons claim her to be.

In 1818 Colonel Rochester removed to the city bearing his name, and lived there the rest of his days, always the wise leader and safe counsellor—a public benefactor rather than a land speculator. In 1818 Rochester was beginning to make considerable noise in the world. It had 1000 inhabitants and more, a dam and mill-race costing some $12,000, several great mills, two newspapers, lines of stages and steam-boats, cotton-mill, paper-mills, and a directory (giving only the names of the males of the village). The increasing tide of tourists to Niagara Falls did not fail to see and write about the backwoods hamlet, which as early as 1828 was the scene of the novel *Lawrie Todd*—a much-talked-of book in its day, reviewed at length in the leading English and American quarterlies, Grant Thorburn, of New York, an eccentric seedsman, of whom Colonel Rochester bought his first trees, helping the English novelist to the material for the story, which confirmed the marvellous accounts of travellers—stumps growing in the middle of the main street; immigrants living in their canvas-topped wagons from lack of accommodations at the crowded inns; Indians celebrating their pagan rites almost within hearing of the prayers and exhortations of "revivalists"; bear hunts; rattlesnake hunts; home-made theatricals; a stir, push, and bustle unlike anything they had seen before. In sixteen years (1814–1830) it attained to the rank of the twenty-first city in population in the United States. A city that had no place on a map (save Colonel Rochester's) in 1818 had twice as many inhabitants in 1838 as Rochester, England.

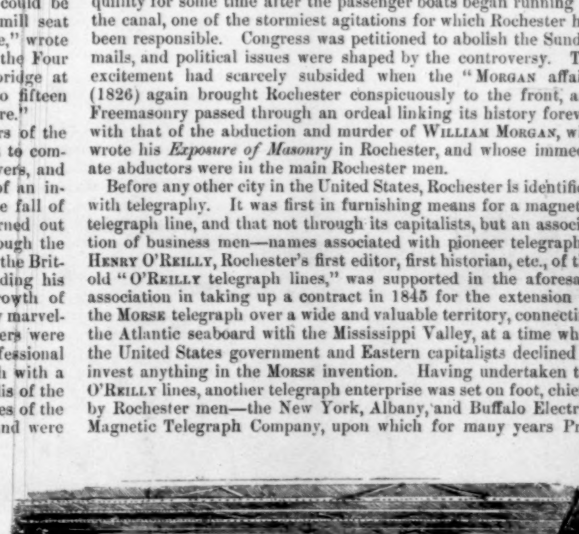
A marked characteristic of Rochester from the beginning has been its success in being much talked about—a place where something is always happening of interest to the world in general. The Carthage Bridge, completed in 1818, when there was hardly a passable road through the wilderness to the deep ravine it crossed, did much to attract public attention to the settlement. Europe had not so high an arch by 96 feet. A single span across a ravine upward of 200 feet deep was an ambitious bridge for the Genesee country. That at Schffhausen, Switzerland—"the pride of the Eastern Hemisphere"—was but 12 feet longer. England's over the river Weir was not so long by 116 feet, and lacked 96 feet of being so high in its arch besides. The interest in the bridge drew many sight-seers, and when it dropped so noiselessly one night that no one heard its fall, a little more than one year after its completion, Rochester was in the newspapers again, with comments upon her phenomenal enterprise. Before any other city in the Empire State, Rochester defeated the opposition to the Erie Canal, the enlargement of which, soon after its completion, was decidedly a Rochester enterprise. "The Lion of the West" was the name she won and wore for her leadership in the canal movement. In 1834, ten years from the completion of "Clinton's ditch," Rochester owned one-half of the boats, and her millers controlled the wheat market.

The aqueduct across the Genesee River, built at a cost of $600,000 (replacing the first one, costing $83,000), added much to the fame of the place—an honest piece of workmanship, as sound to-day as when it was built. That Sam Patch did something for the early celebrity of Rochester is clearly shown in the comments of her visitors from the day of his jumping the falls (November, 1829) until now. The bibliography of that event would make an interesting volume, and possibly secure a headstone for poor Sam's grave. Few are the visitors who in visiting the falls forget Sam Patch. Hawthorne saw his ghost emerging from the foam of the Genesee to vanish among the shadows of the cliffs. W. D. Howells calls Rochester the "enchanted city," and sings, in the "Wedding Journey,"

"In the Bierhausgarten I linger,
By the Falls of the Genesee;
From the table rock in the middle
Leaps a figure bold and free," etc.

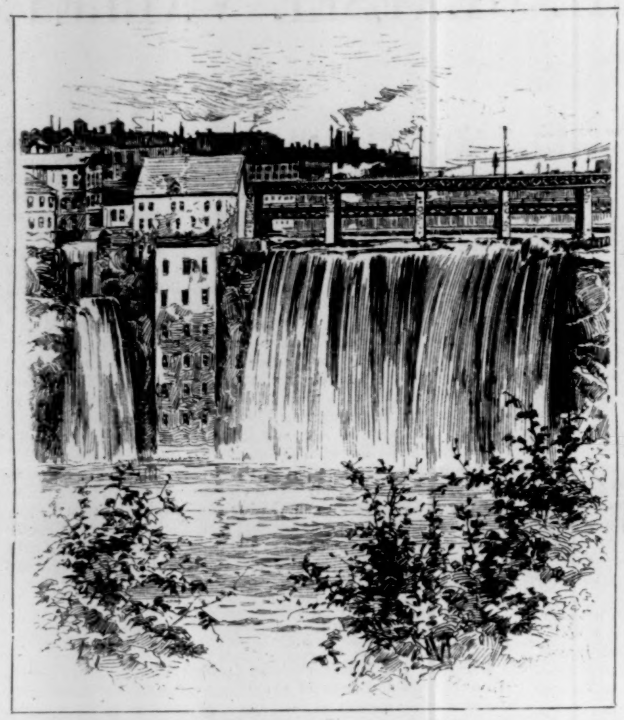
Rochester had hardly enclosed its first meeting-house (1817) when the good women of the village organized a missionary society for the benefit of destitute congregations in the vicinity. In 1821 the young men were sending missionaries to Niagara County. Missionary zeal demanded many outlets—a Female Charitable Society, still in vigorous existence, charity schools, tract societies, etc. The "cause of the Greek" (1823) was enthusiastically taken up, mass-meetings held, a ball given, sermons preached, and much money raised for the defeat of the Turk. A township adjoining the city was named Greece, a street was named Scio, and the intense partisanship of the village found expression in the fiery leaders of its able press. The American Bible Society had its origin in Rochester in 1825. The temperance movement received a strong impulse from the Rochester organizations, which were early in sending out lecturers and literature, and maintaining aggressive warfare against "Rum and License." The "Sabbath Question" was another agitation breaking the public tranquillity for some time after the passenger boats began running on the canal, one of the stormiest agitations for which Rochester had been responsible. Congress was petitioned to abolish the Sunday mails, and political issues were shaped by the controversy. The excitement had scarcely subsided when the "Morgan affair" (1826) again brought Rochester conspicuously to the front, and Freemasonry passed through an ordeal linking its history forever with that of the abduction and murder of William Morgan, who wrote his *Exposure of Masonry* in Rochester, and whose immediate abductors were in the main Rochester men.

Before any other city in the United States, Rochester is identified with telegraphy. It was first in furnishing means for a magnetic telegraph line, and that not through its capitalists, but an association of business men—names associated with pioneer telegraphy. Henry O'Reilly, Rochester's first editor, first historian, etc., of the old "O'Reilly telegraph lines," was supported in the aforesaid association in taking up a contract in 1845 for the extension of the Morse telegraph over a wide and valuable territory, connecting the Atlantic seaboard with the Mississippi Valley, at a time when the United States government and Eastern capitalists declined to invest anything in the Morse invention. Having undertaken the O'Reilly lines, another telegraph enterprise was set on foot, chiefly by Rochester men—the New York, Albany, and Buffalo Electric-Magnetic Telegraph Company, upon which for many years Professor Morse relied solely for an income. "The Western Union," the salvation of telegraphy from financial failure, was emphatically a Rochester enterprise; its original stockholders were all Rochester men. Much of the wealth and prosperity of the city is laid in Western Union. The $100,000 originally subscribed in 1854 in what many of the investors called "Hiram Sibley's crazy scheme" soon exceeded in value the whole assessed value of the property, real and personal, of the city of Rochester.

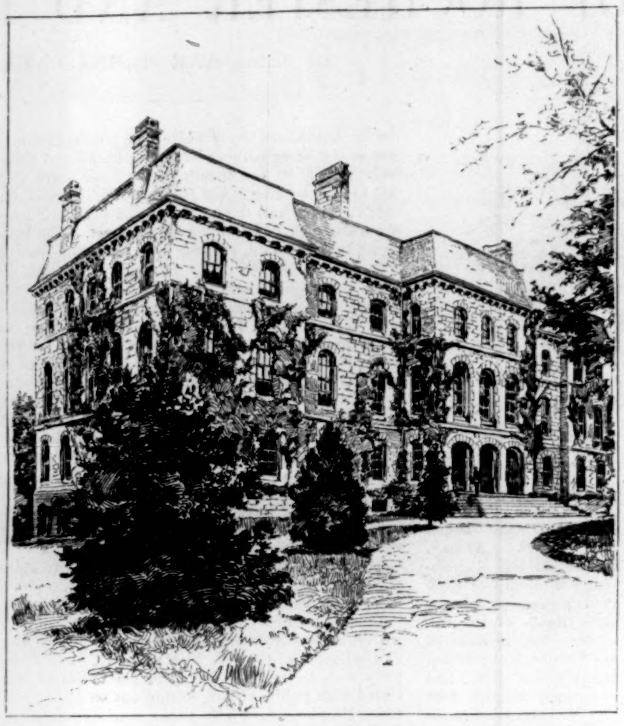


LOOKING DOWN THE RIVER FROM CENTRAL AVENUE BRIDGE.

The Pacific Telegraph, crossing the Rocky Mountains ten years in advance of the railroad (1861), was an enterprise of Hiram Sibley's, the contract for the same being between him individually and the Secretary of the Treasury. The Russian Overland, or the Collins Line, turned to Rochester for a realization of the great international project, and it was in the office of the Western Union (then in Rochester) that the contract for building the same was signed, Rochester men like Judge Palmer, Samuel Wilder, and others having much to do with the practical work of the great defeat of the century. The little steamer *Anson Stager*—and Anson Stager was once a Rochesterian—was the first craft of the white man to ascend the Yukon from the sea. Although Roches-



THE UPPER FALLS OF THE GENESEE.



ROCHESTER UNIVERSITY.

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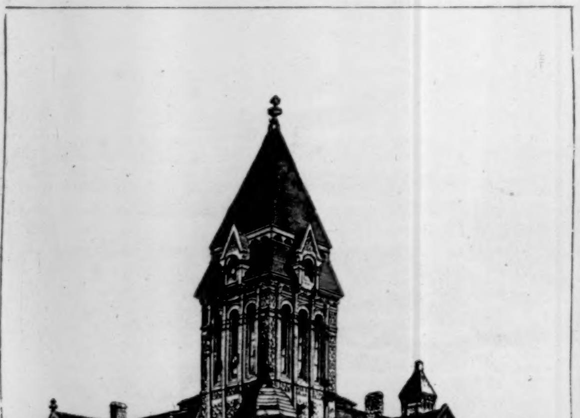

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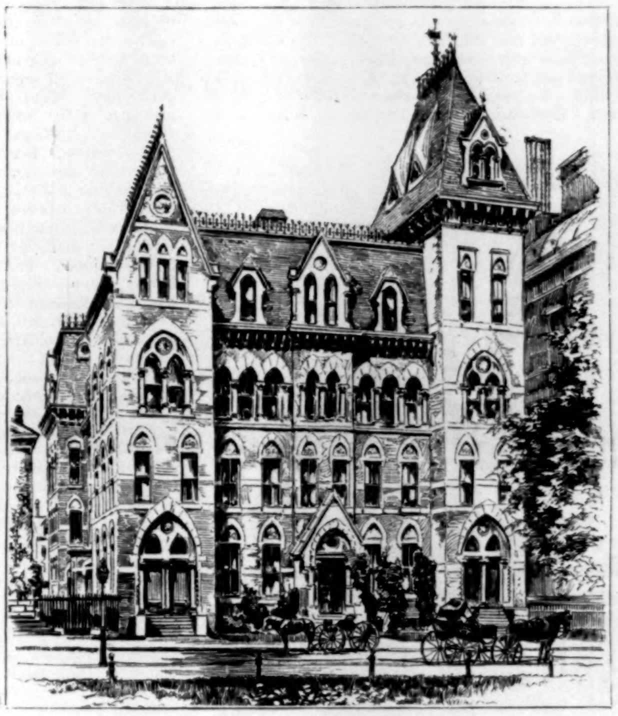

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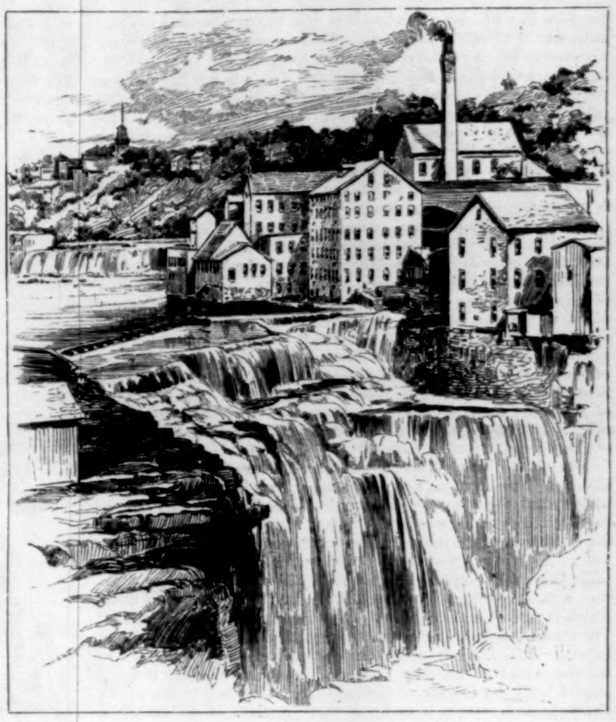
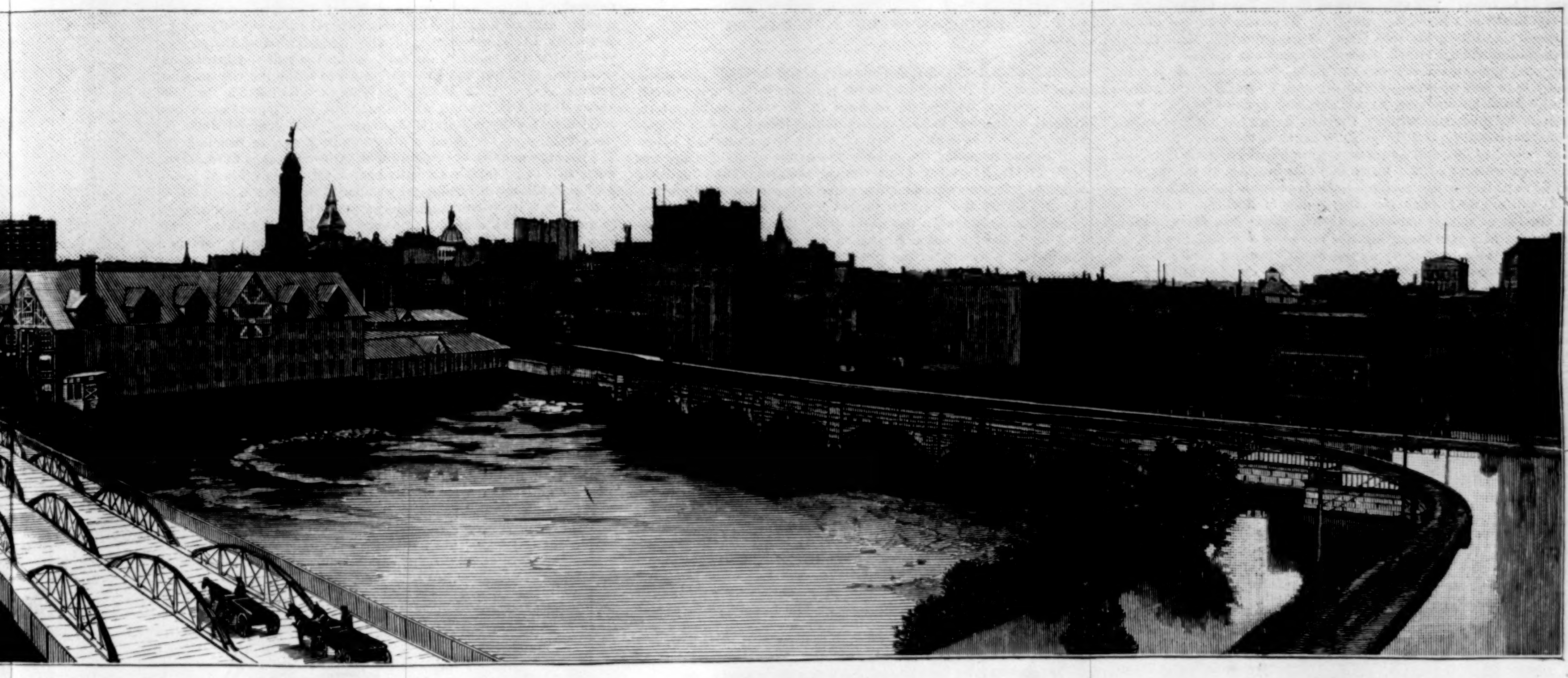


THE LOWER FALLS OF THE GENESEE.



TE GENESEE RIVER.

VALLEY CLUB.

THE POWERS BLOCK.

THE WILDER BUILDING.

E BUILDINGS.—From Photographs by Peter Mawdsley.